The role of Emotional Intelligence in the development of adolescents' social and emotional skills, abilities and academic performance after the transition to secondary school

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Abstract

Previous research demonstrates that pupils do not always have the necessary emotional intelligence (EI) to cope with the transition to secondary school successfully. This thesis explores whether an intervention designed to enhance key emotional intelligence can impact positively on students' academic performance after a secondary school transition. The intervention was designed with reference to six teacher interviews and seven classroom observations of children who had recently transitioned to secondary school. Sixty children aged 11-12 years took part in the intervention which involved six group sessions. The outcomes of the intervention were assessed through pre-, post- and eight-month follow-up self-report questionnaires administered to the children. Findings demonstrate that the intervention had a significant positive impact on affective disposition and behavioural conduct from pre- to post test. Furthermore, all sub-constructs in the IRI empathy measure (empathic concern, perspective taking, fantasy scale and personal distress), as well as the adaptability, self-motivation, low impulsivity, peer relations, emotional regulation, behavioural conduct and overall EI showed a statistically significant increase at the follow-up phase. Multiple regressions revealed that empathy can significantly predict academic achievement. Qualitative measures were also used after the intervention to capture a rich and in-depth insight into the mechanisms that facilitate EI change and the pupils' perceptions of the role of EI during the transition period. Thematic analysis demonstrated a positive movement in the group's coping strategies and practices. This research highlights the positive influence that context-specific interventions can have, based on the inclusion of an exploratory phase before and after designing and delivering such programmes. The results are discussed in terms of implications for schools, practitioners and researchers and suggestions are made for further studies in this under-researched area.

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Chapter One - Introduction

1.1. Research Scope

This thesis sets out to understand the role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the development of adolescents' social and emotional skills and academic performance. The thesis contributes to the evidence base of EI in an educational environment, exploring the impact of a personalised EI intervention programme on Year 7 pupils after the transition to secondary school. The primary aim of this research is to explore the impact of the intervention with regards to the pupils' social and emotional skills and academic performance, in addition to capturing a richer and more in-depth account of pupils and teachers understanding of EI within a specific secondary school setting.

1.2. Secondary school transitions

According to Evangelou et al., (2008) educational transition is a process that young people experience as a result of significant changes in terms of their personal or school life. Transition denotes '*experiencing change…. of living the discontinuities between the different contexts'* (Gorgori et al., 2002, p.24). Coping with transitions is a vital skill that helps young people adjust and adapt to the various changes they will experience in later life (Stringer & Dunsmuir, 2012). Studies worldwide have been conducted to investigate the different transitions or transfers young people go through during the educational process (e.g., Anderson et al., 2000). Stringer and Dunsmuir (2012) highlighted that in the British educational system there are several transitions that need to be navigated, with the change from primary to secondary school being one of the most significant due to the psychological, physiological and cognitive developments occurring simultaneously at that time for adolescents.

Transitioning to secondary school entails pupils moving from an educational environment they have probably been studying in for the past seven years (primary school), to a new and much larger and more complex educational system. This change has been described as a process including several environmental and relational changes (Tobbell, 2003). Pupils need to cope with disruptions in the teaching experience, size, cultural and social environment of

primary and secondary schools, which is considered *to be 'one of the most challenging experiences of adolescents' educational careers'* (Zeedyk et al., 2003 p.67).

It is recognised that as a result of the secondary school transition, pupils experience a drop in their achievement levels and emotional well-being (Anderson et al., 2000). Galton et al., (1999) found long-term implications for pupils' attainment, reporting that in the first year of secondary school 40 percent of the pupils failed to progress academically. The drop in attainment has been linked to: a lack of continuity in the curriculum from Year 6 to Year 7 (Fouracre, 1993), underestimation of the ability of Year 7 pupils (Galton et al., 1999), and a decline in pupils' academic interest (Meece et al., 2006). In addition, with regards to adolescents' emotional well-being, the transition causes anxiety among the pupils amongst other emotional challenges (Jindal-Snape & Miller, 2008). Tobbell (2003) alludes that this higher level of anxiety lowers the capacity of cognitive processing, implicating the concern of the lack of academic progress made by some pupils. Other research has found that some pupils also struggle with lower self-esteem when going to secondary school (Wigfield, 1991), while West et al., (2010) pointed out that there are long-term consequences for pupils' psychological well-being.

Due to the concerns regarding the increasing number of pupils experiencing negative outcomes during the transition, considerable research in the UK has been carried out to explore this multi-faceted phenomenon (DfES, 2004). The research has investigated the experience of pupils, the risk factors for poor transitions, and evaluated the existing transitional support. The results from such research suggested that even brief transfer support programmes can demonstrate positive impacts on targeted pupils' levels of schools concerns and reduce pupils' anxieties to the level of a 'typical' benchmarked group (Bloyce & Frederickson, 2012). Nevertheless, only a small body of the research has focused on the emotional aspects of the transition and enhancing such skills and abilities; therefore by targeting the psychological processes underpinning this secondary school transition, it is hoped that better support can be provided to the pupils during this process (Tobbell, 2003).

The Department for Education (DfE) have similarly recognised the significance of this transition and have highlighted a commitment by assigning research in enriching pupils' outcomes post-transition (Evangelou et al., 2008). The vital importance of schools enabling a

smooth transition from primary to secondary has also been targeted by the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted, 2015). Based on their assessment of existing transition provisions, Ofsted (2015) concluded that many primary and secondary schools have inadequate transition practices due to the intractable problem of academic and pastoral continuity across the schools. The Ofsted 'Wasted Years' report (2015) stressed that secondary school leaders, as well as their primary school colleagues, must address the concerns about the inadequate transfer arrangements by improving communication and information exchange and making children's transition as comfortable as possible. Ofsted emphasised the importance of meeting pupils' needs and suggested Local Authorities (LAs) and schools engaged in systematic evaluations of their transition support. This was supported by a finding from the National Foundation for Educational Research which suggested to *"promote schools to consider the relationship between human development, the structure of schooling and the timing of the school"* (NFER, 2006, p.3).

1.3. Importance of Social and Emotional Well-being

Human development during the primary years as mentioned in the NFER report (2006) is a period of rapid physical, cognitive, social and linguistic development as adolescents experience hormonal surges, identity crises and emotional surges. This could indicate that having social and emotional skills and abilities are vital in the lives of adolescents. The importance of social and emotional skills and abilities can be seen by the increase in the number of programmes dedicated to enhancing pupils' development in this area. For example, Circle Time, Nurture Groups, Quiet Place, and Friends for Life (Stallard et al., 2005) are school-based interventions focused on improving pupils' social and emotional well-being. Other areas of social and emotional skills such as self-awareness, self-regulation, and social skills have also been targeted by interventions like the Social and Emotional Aspect of Learning (SEAL; DCSF, 2005), aimed at improving the attributes and skills that encourage positive behaviour and effective learning. Although schools have been applying these interventions to support adolescents, these interventions have produced mixed findings, and so apprehension continues to exist amongst mainstream educators regarding such generic and universal EI intervention programmes. There does not seem to be clarity or clear guidance on how to identify and support pupils during the secondary school transition, with pupils' emotional intelligence and wellbeing being somewhat overlooked throughout

the transitional support (Sutherland et al., 2010). Therefore, this research will investigate the possible function, significance and impact of utilising teachers' and pupils' perspectives of EI and context-specificity prior to the construction and delivery of an EI transition support programme. Ginsburg et al., (2008) claim that initiatives supporting pupils' social and emotional well-being in schools conflict with the traditional objectives of education. It was expected that teaching should only focus on the core subject curriculum, and the knowledge acquired through these subjects would be sufficient to overcome the difficulties pupils experienced in their adult life (Ginsburg et al., 2008). However, it is difficult to understand how this limited scope would help those pupils struggling with social, emotional or behavioural difficulties.

Previous findings demonstrate that individuals with high EI are largely happier (Furnham & Petrides, 2003), better in coping in challenging situations (MacCann et al., 2011), and possess greater control in how they behave (for a meta-analysis see Wells et al., 2003; Shucksmith et al., 2007). This suggests that emotional intelligence (EI) is a significant factor to consider when it comes to enabling pupils to reach their goals. Even though the theory of EI is pertinent to transitions, there is inconclusive research in this area regarding terminology, evaluation and the validity of the concept. Thus, the evidence base for emotional intelligence is perceived as uncertain because there is no agreement of terms and how to conduct assessments. At present, assessments rely on ability tests (Mayer et al., 2008) and self-perception measures (Petrides & Furnham, 2000) which are limited in not revealing real world applications (Zeidner & Roberts, 2002) and the experiences of one's EI abilities.

However, despite these theoretical and methodological debates Petrides, Frederickson, and Fumham (2004) suggest that their perspectives of EI (Trait EI) have found high emotional intelligence correlates with lower absenteeism at school. Qualter et al., (2007) also claimed that trait EI was closely related to success especially during the school transitions. Therefore, it seems that pupils with high trait EI are able to react more effectively during transitions compared to the pupils with low trait EI, possibly due to the lack of appropriate coping strategies. This suggests that adolescents' capability to handle feelings and situations during the transitions may be effectively explained and practitioners' understandings enhanced through the lens of Petrides et al.'s., (2004) perspective of trait EI.

Having a negative experience of the transition from primary to secondary school could also pose long-term impacts on pupils' educational performance and psychological well-being (West et al., 2010). Considering the long-term implications of not giving sufficient emotional support to pupils during this period, research has attempted to highlight factors that facilitate success during this transition process (Evangelou et al., 2008). Despite research indicating the considerable effect EI can have on academic achievement, research has failed to explore the impact of a context-specific EI intervention programme for adolescents' post-primary transition. As a result of the gap within the literature, researchers have called for an exploration of EI during this significant educational transition (e.g. West et al., 2010). This thesis aims to bridge this gap and gain a better understanding of this process for pupils, and, in aiming to investigate the secondary school transition through pupil and teacher voices, it hopes to highlight factors supporting EI and successful interventions during this transition.

1.4. Methodological Standpoint/Research Methodology

Research has explored EI in different professional contexts and industrial settings (Ashkanasy et al., 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002). Research on EI focusing on group interventions is mainly directed at mental health and wellbeing (Wells et al., 2003; Shucksmith et al., 2007) in addition to predominantly using one research method, i.e. qualitative or quantitative method, with few studies utilising mixed-methods. As will be mentioned in Chapter Three, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that the depth and fullness of the real world cannot be captured with one paradigm, thus, using a single paradigm, in essence, will only provide a limited view of a particular research condition. The current research augments the EI research field by utilising a pragmatic approach by conducting both quantitative data collection and analysis (Study 2 of the research) with qualitative data collection and analysis (Study 1 and 3 of the research) together to provide a comprehensive understanding of the role of emotional intelligence in the development of adolescents' social and emotional abilities and skills and academic achievement.

1.5. Researcher's personal interest

As an early career academic and language teacher in the South East of England, a common concern expressed by school practitioners and parents alike centre on pupils who face

"emotional blocks" in learning and pupils whose academic progress are being hindered due to their negative emotional responses. For instance, some pupils appear to give up after getting critical feedback or when they make a mistake. Others may have angry outbursts when they perceive an activity to be exceedingly difficult, which may take a significant amount of time to recover from. Some pupils may become dejected upon facing a setback and anxious during challenges. On the other hand, other pupils seem to be able to cope better during transitions and when faced with difficult tasks. The experience of working as a teacher within secondary schools, as well as completing an MA in Education (Psychology) from the Institute of Education, University College London (UCL IOE), has further enhanced the researchers' passion for developing adolescent's psychological well-being and academic success. This has continued throughout the doctoral research process, where chances to support adolescents and obtain experience and knowledge have been provided in abundance.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter begins by introducing the research around the transition phase from primary to secondary school with particular attention given to factors that affect the transition and its relationship with emotional intelligence. Key theoretical concepts of emotional intelligence (EI) are presented followed by research evidence pertaining to EI intervention programmes used in an educational context, with a particular focus on those interventions used with school children. Different data collection methods in this field are also analysed and outlined. The literature review concludes with the research aims and hypotheses under investigation.

2.2. From Primary to Secondary School

The transition from primary to secondary school is experienced by different children every year. This particular transition has been recognised as a 'critical life event' (Lohaus et al., 2004), in addition to being '*one of the most difficult transitions in children's educational careers*' (Zeedyk et al., 2003, p, 4). The transition or *transfer* is characterised by social and contextual changes. Primary schools are generally characterised by smaller school buildings (Wassell et al., 2007), and the pupils are usually taught by a single teacher with one set of

classmates. Anderson et al., (2000) highlighted the environmental shift when the pupils enter secondary school leading to an experience of change in the size of the school, shifts in the subjects taught, exposure to multiple teachers and classrooms, along with a shift in the pupil-teacher relationship and additional expectations (Anderson et al., 2000; Lohaus et al., 2004; Wassell et al., 2007; West et al., 2010). In addition to the above changes, there are also significant differences in the social aspects of secondary school. For example, contact with older pupils, growing friendship groups whilst alternatively the possibility of losing current social groups, and greater importance on social comparisons (Vanlede et al., 2006; Wargo Aikins et al., 2005; West et al., 2010). According to Tobbell (2013), this new social dynamic is "*more independent and relatively freer from adult observation*" (p, 13). It is noteworthy that this particular transition happens during a developmental change for 11-12-year-old children. The transition is parallel with consecutive changes in intellectual reasoning, physical development and hormonal changes, along with the social and emotional enhancement (Wargo AItkins et al., 2005). According to West et al., (2010), the timeframe of this particular transition is recognised as '*developmental inequality*' as the needs of the young people are not met.

2.2.1. Individual factors that impact the transfer – social, emotional, biological and cognitive changes

Puberty is a complex biological process consisting of sexual development, accelerated linear growth and adrenal maturation. Graber et al., (1996) observed a rapid increase in height and weight, maturation of the fundamental sex characteristics, maturation of the secondary sex features, transformation in the quantity and dissemination of the fat and muscle along with development in the circulatory and respiratory systems that are responsible for the increase in the ability to perform physical activities (Graber et al., 1996). Steinberg (2011) mentioned that puberty for girls starts at the age of 7 to 13 and it hits boys at the age of 9 to 13. The maturation process of girls can last between a year and a half up to six years, and for boys, the maturation process can last for approximately two to five years. Studies have been published regarding the impact of the early maturation and late maturation processes in boys and girls. In particular, girls with early maturation and the boys with late maturation are more vulnerable towards developing peer difficulties in relationships and development of psychological problems (Steingerg, 2011). Further, Steinberg (2011) mentioned that the

boys characterised with late maturation are less popular in their social networks and are likely to develop negative self-concepts. On the other hand, girls with early maturation are likely to face enhanced emotional difficulties which include depression, low self-confidence, anxiety and eating disorders than on time or late maturing girls (Grabner et al., 1996). Therefore, the transfer coincides with physical and biological changes and these changes have social and emotional impacts on young people's lives.

There are also a series of cognitive transitions that adolescents experience. Cognitive ability refers to the intellectual competency of the child. Children primarily focus on the events that are occurring (concrete and observable) and do not link their intellectual reasoning with experience. On the other hand, adolescents develop the habit of thinking on the basis of their own perspective and intellect (Keating, 1990). The enhancement of the adolescents in theoretical deductive reasoning can be recognised as one of the examples of the intellectual change in the adolescents. With the help of this particular reasoning skill, they are able to solve or reason a particular problem systematically. Along with this change, the adolescents also experience enhancements in their meta-cognitive skills. The adolescents develop the strategy of remembering information and conveying their cognitive strategies to others (Conley, 2008).

Moreover, Keating (1990) mentioned that the ability of information handling is also enhanced such as gaining the ability to understand the difference between selective and divided attention, enhanced memory and enhanced capabilities of processing information. It has been established that adolescents experience a period of 'developing formal operations' during which the adolescents utilise their advanced skills of reasoning in some circumstances and not in others (Kuhn et al., 1977; Markovits et al., 1996). Keys et al., (2013) in their study to boost school readiness, revealed that some of the pupils adjust quickly to the new surroundings when they are admitted to the secondary school while on the other hand; other children find it difficult to cope with the new surrounding completely. A question arises which asks the reason why and how some children have faster adaptation to the surroundings compared to others? Some of the reasons include enhanced academic ability, a strong supportive family and healthy relationships with their friends (Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Woodman & Hardy, 2003; Pellegrini & Long, 2002). Some children are more motivated than other children, and it has been mentioned that self-confidence and

wellbeing can act as the buffers to overcome many stressors (Friedlander & Laura, 2007; Hudd et al., 2000; Woodman & Hardy, 2003). Therefore, these individual characteristics may assist adolescents to adjust to the secondary school smoothly.

Another factor that has been identified as the reason for the successful adjustment of the child in the secondary school is gender differences, yet, there has been little agreement about which gender is at most risk. Galton et al., (1999) have proposed that boys are more vulnerable compared to girls at the period of transition (Galton et al., 1999; West et al., 2008), yet, Anderson et al., (2000) identified that girls react more detrimentally in relation to the disruption caused by their social networks during the transition. Additionally, pupils who are from non-white ethnic backgrounds (Galton et al., 1999; Graham & Hill, 2003), with low socioeconomic status (Anderson et al., 2000; West et al., 2008), are younger in age (West et al., 2010), from one parent families (Galton et al., 2000; West et al., 2010), or who have English as an additional language (Galton et al., 1999) are more vulnerable at the period of transition from primary to secondary school than those who are not. Moreover, family factors are seen to be significant influences on the transition process, with West et al., (2010) believing that children who have more caring parents and already have a brother or a sister in the school are found to make faster adjustments (Evangelou et al., 2008; Lucey & Reay, 2000; West et al., 2010).

2.2.2. Transition and Self-Esteem

Secondary school transition corresponds with the time when self-esteem is possibly low or vulnerable due to the new changes and challenges. Studies on self-esteem and school transfer from primary to secondary school have found that overall self-esteem drops during the transition (Cantin & Boivin, 2004; Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005; Robins et al., 2002). In a longitudinal study of adolescents, Cantin and Boivin (2004) found that this low self-esteem continues for two years post-transition. This is contrary to the findings of Fenzel et al., (2000) who found that while self-esteem dips during the transfer, it recovers six months post-transition. Evidence has also shown that compared to the boys, girls suffer the most in regards to self-esteem during this time, with negative consequences on friendship groups and academic performance (Eccles et al., 1994; Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005). Subsequently, self-esteem was less-likely to drop during the transition if the pupils had better friendship

groups, which was found particularly true for boys (Fenzel, 2000; Rice & Dolgin, 2005). Wigfield & Eccles (1992), demonstrated that changes in self-esteem were not affected by gender but associated with lowered self-esteem to the changes in the school and classroom environment.

However, the transition can sometimes be helpful for children with adverse self-perceptions since they may discover their specialised skills or may develop close friendships (Weller, 2007).Though many studies have shown that self-esteem lowers during the school transition, some studies have also argued that self-esteem may increase or stay the same. In an American study of pupils' self-worth and competency, it was found that general self-esteem and physical, social and cognitive self-esteem remained stable and in some cases developed from the sixth to the seventh grade (Proctor & Choi, 1994). This study suggests that self-esteem of a child was not being affected negatively by the transfer. Likewise, Akos & Galassi (2004) highlighted that self-esteem did not change from Year 6 to Year 7 and it moreover increased from the middle to the end of Year 8.

2.2.3. Transition and Wellbeing

Related to self-esteem, Hirsh and Rapkin (1987) explored the quality of school life during the transition. They found that even though there was no negative change in self-esteem, there was a drop in the perception of the quality of school life after the period of transition. The perception of the quality of school life was measured with respect to the rate of pupil school satisfaction and other influential factors such as commitment and the relationship with teachers which all declined irrespective of academic achievement. Similarly, two studies in Scotland specifically observed the notion of wellbeing in relation to the school transfer. The first study investigated two groups of pupils' emotional wellbeing before the secondary school transition (Stradling & Macneil, 2000). In this first study, wellbeing was described and experienced in relation to *"the absence of pressure, worry, emotional suffering, and depression of the pupils" (p, 2)* instead of life satisfaction. Stradling and MacNeil (2000) noticed that 65% of the children conveyed positive approaches with respect to the school environment which included schoolwork, peer relations, and self-perception. Study two investigated the impact that the secondary school transition had on pupils' wellbeing (Love et al., 2005). Emotional wellbeing in the latter study denoted positive mental health,

confidence and the capability to control emotions; which was different from the former study's definition which defined wellbeing with the absence of risks and challenges. This latter study, which utilised an older target population (secondary school pupils) went on to show that a number of pupils expressed a positive outlook, thought well of themselves and also thought that others were thinking well about them. The transition appeared to have passed smoothly, however, after the pupils had settled into secondary school, they feared about their safety, getting involved in alcohol and intoxicants and bullying (Love et al., 2005) impinging on the adolescent's sense of vulnerability and possibly impacting on their wellbeing.

Self-perceptions of children are key predictors in regards to their changing adjustment and self-evaluation according to Lord et al., (1994). Children appear to suffer dramatic declines in the perceived competencies when they move to secondary school (Jindal-Snape & Miller, 2008; Mullins & Irvin, 2000). This is thought not to be due to the difficulty of the task, as it is believed that the work becomes less challenging compared to primary school (Eccles et al., 1993; Harter et al., 1992), but possibly due to the nature of the secondary school learning environment, changing in a negative way for many children during adolescence (Eccles et al., 1993; Seidman et al., 1994). However, Silverthorn et al., (2005) who measured competence three times over the period of transition found that the pupils' perceived competence grew, or at the least remained stable, over the transition. Nonetheless, studies have shown that primary school academic self-perception affect performance during Year 7 (Silverthorn et al., 2005). In addition, other pre-existing problems such as stress before the transfer can be aggravated due to the move to secondary school (Rudolph et al., 2001). Susceptible pupils may feel helpless due to new environments resulting in less effort which may lead to lower academic performance (Rudolph et al., 2001). Thus, it seems that the decline in the self-perceived competencies makes a direct impact on the pupils' motivation. Rudolph et al., (2001) have shown this in their study of vulnerable pupils whose decline in perceived competencies in the face of challenges resulted in low confidence and motivation during their studies.

2.2.4. Transition and Motivation

Motivation is often divided into two types; namely; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is characterised by inherent reasons for undertaking an activity and possibly due to the enjoyment felt by the individual. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is identified with the objective of achieving a goal and not for enjoyment purposes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The significance of promoting intrinsic motivation is that it is likely to produce deeply engaged pupils (Blumenfeld et al., 2006). Nevertheless, it has been implied that changes in: secondary school practices (such as more focus on pupils' grades and reduced participation in the decision making processes), school structure, and the deteriorating pupil-teachers relationships during the transition phase are factors that are leading to the weakening interest in education and also poor academic performance (Eccles, 2004; Tella, 2007; Wentzel et al., 2004).

As well as a general drop in motivation, Harter et al., (1992) ascertained a change from a mostly intrinsic to a more extrinsic motivation over a time span of six years. This was mainly between the third grade and the ninth grade, in particular between the sixth and seventh grade (the time of transition from primary to secondary school). This can possibly be clarified by Ryan & Deci's (2000) theory of Self-Determination. This theory posits that intrinsic motivation is influenced by social-contextual factors, which subsequently affects academic achievement. Fundamental to this theory is the notion that only the social contexts that encourage pupil autonomy can enhance intrinsic motivation. Therefore, pupils' motivation and self-determination are significantly negatively affected by a control-orientated educational setting. This could be further exasperated if pupils experience an impersonal teacher approach with the possibility of a change from the child-centered attitude (primary school) to that of a subject-centered approach and teaching (secondary school) (Cantin & Boivin, 2004; Rutter, 2006).

Nonetheless, research conducted on the effect of the transition on motivation in English, Maths, and Science classes revealed that the transfer could impact motivation both positively and negatively (Meece et al., 2006). Pupils often experience an intrinsically motivated 'honeymoon' phase during the post-secondary school transition whereby they feel excited about new friendships, classes, lockers and new activities (Galton et al., 2003;

Harter et al., 1992; Lenga & Ogden, 2000). It could be possible that teachers augment the honeymoon phase by avoiding a dispute over misbehaviour (Gordon et al., 1999), yet, throughout the transition, the reality of academic and social success and failure develop, and this is likely to affect pupils' school behaviour and motivation.

Bloyce and Frederickson (2012) found that secondary school teachers used a higher standard of assessment compared to primary school that resulted in lower marks for numerous pupils. This impact of the decreasing perceptions in terms of competencies could encourage pupils to reduce the values which they attach to these subjects including a decline in the motivational levels (Eccles, 2004; Harter et al., 1992; Wentzel et al., 2004). Additionally, it has been suggested that secondary school teachers' unwillingness to recognise the relevance of core subjects taught in primary schools negatively affects pupils as it leads to a drop in motivation as pupils become disengaged as they may have to repeat what they had previously studied (Lenga & Ogden, 2000).

Eliot & Dweck (1988) mentioned that some children experienced a decrease in motivation in their learning experience in the first few months after moving to secondary school. Green et al., (2010) supported this in their study in which a small number of primary school children were tracked during their move to secondary school. They found that the transfer provided less opportunity in terms of meaningful writing along with more focus on mundane activities including mindless copying of notes, filling the gaps exercises and labelling and listening. One rationale behind this was that the teachers were mainly concerned with providing the pupils with a gentle beginning while making few real demands and orders on the pupils (Green et al., 2010). Hence, they failed in establishing an immediate impetus. Studies have shown that 57% of primary school pupils looked forward to the secondary school academic subjects and upon arrival expected a learning challenge (Zeedyk et al., 2003). One of the notable worries of pre-transfer was homework but, Akos and Galassi (2004) mentioned that compared to the primary school, the secondary pupils had to do less homework. The pupils also highlighted that the work was more difficult in the primary school but, in the secondary school, it was mainly centred on revision (Akos & Galassi, 2004); this lack of challenge for the pupils may then result in losing interest in their studies and consequently a decline in motivation. Furthermore, it was found that children were

losing their enthusiasm and consequently, were exerting minimum levels of effort (Tella, 2007). Due to 'a lack of interest', pupils in some studies were unable to adapt to the new environment of the secondary school or became less interested over time (Chedzov & Burden, 2005). Thus, it can be seen that there could be a link between boredom or a lack of interest with attainment and adjustment and it is an ongoing concern that may have a detrimental effect on adolescents. Individual pupils, through becoming less intrinsically motivated, may experience a decline in motivation during the movement from primary to secondary school. Given the importance that has been placed on promoting the non-cognitive aspects of education for teaching and learning to be effective, motivation is an area in which further research, in particular, an intervention for transitioning pupils would be of use.

2.3. Differences in the School Environments

According to Bloyce and Frederickson (2012), there are other additional factors external to individual characteristics that facilitate the school transfer which includes the factors related to the quality of the school. The context of the school includes the environment of the school, the staff and their relationships, in addition to the nature of the school building and the school classrooms. All features of the school context come together to influence the quality of the school experience for each pupil. There are clear contextual distinctions between primary and secondary schools. The infrastructure of a secondary school is generally bigger as compared to the infrastructure of a primary school, and so the pupils are required to find their own way in a much larger setting and moreover discover their own position in a larger social system. In primary school they are usually accustomed to one teacher in a single classroom, however, in secondary school, they must adjust to numerous subject teachers in various scattered classrooms. In relation to this, if the new secondary school is not well equipped with lockers and other resources, pupils may need additional organisational abilities and may lead to pupils feeling 'rootless' which may not have been felt in primary school. In the next section, the secondary school context (physical, social and whole school context) will be critically discussed.

2.3.1. Alterations in the context of the whole school

Generally, the phenomenon of transfer from the primary to the secondary schools involves a move from a comparatively small school to a larger one. Apart from facing challenges with the larger physical and social attributes of the new school, there may also be other factors which could be a point of concern for the pupils. In this context, Walsh (1995) mentioned that pupils who transfer from small primary schools from rural to urban areas may particularly face greater problems at the time of adjustment in the big secondary schools. In the case of rural primary schools, Walsh (1995) stated that the children are well-known within the small rural community; however, in the case of secondary schools, the social and academic discontinuity may become the reason for stress for the pupils in the initial phase (Walsh, 1995). Supporting the above view, examples can be extracted from the research of a rural Norwegian school. In this study, the children from the smaller rural primary school felt socially inferior after transferring to secondary schools, even though this was not the case academically (Kvalsund, 2000). This implies that the transition effects are experienced regardless of cultural differences and the size of the school. Yet, Cocklin (1999) in an ethnographic longitudinal study of secondary school pupils from Australia, found that the children who moved from primary school to secondary school easily surmounted the difficulty faced by a larger setting, and readily made new friends. This study however, only took the experiences of three pupils moving from a rural school in Australia to an urban secondary school and therefore, the findings may not be generalisable.

Some children might already have friends in the secondary schools which is beneficial for them at the time of social adjustments (Smith et al., 2001). It was suggested by Johnstone (2002) that it becomes easier for the pupils to adjust in the new surrounding of the secondary schools if they have prior peer relationships with them in the class, and she also indicated that prior relationships with older pupils also supported the transition. Murray et al., (2000) mentioned that some pupils were happy with their transfer as they were finally able to rid themselves of the *'norms, labels and low expectations*' of their primary schools when they moved with their friends to secondary school.

2.3.2. Alterations in the surrounding of the classrooms

The transfer is accompanied by myriad changes in the classroom contexts. Research has highlighted the existence of disparities between the characteristic of the classrooms and the social, emotional and academic needs of developing pupils. Firstly, the changes in the classroom characteristics can be shown by the difference of discipline and control demonstrated by the teacher from primary school to secondary schools. Eccles et al., (1996) mentioned that there is more discipline in the context of the secondary school classrooms as compared to the classrooms of the primary schools. Moreover, the pupils of secondary schools are given comparatively less freedom and are not given many opportunities in relation to the decision-making process. Symonds and Galton (2014) reiterated that this type of changing environment does not correspond with the developmental requirements of the adolescents as they yearn for greater independence and autonomy. Research also indicates that the relationship between the pupils with the teachers becomes significantly more impersonal in the secondary schools as compared to the primary schools (Eccles, 1989). In one study, many of the pupils mentioned that the teachers of the secondary schools were comparatively less caring and supportive as compared to the teachers of their primary schools (Feldlaufer et al., 1988). Pupil-teacher relationships will be discussed further in section 2.3.4.

Due to such impersonal teacher-pupil relationships, pupils are turning to peers instead of their teachers whilst the pupils explore their identity; a time when they could be benefited by a respected adult such as a teacher as they question parental significance and parental worth (Eccles et al., 1998). According to Bloyce and Frederickson (2012), the transition period involves the start of the grouping and tracking of abilities (Steinberg, 2011). With the assistance of effective tracking, teachers are able to teach the pupils most effectively, yet many studies have mentioned that due to the tracking system, the pupils gradually become more critical about their own evaluation which could lead to greater social judgment (Ireson & Hallam, 2001; 2009; Ireson et al., 2002). Moreover, due to such tracking systems lower ability pupils are seen to experience lowered self-esteem (Steinberg, 2011). Even before the tracking systems were put in to practice, this notion was supported by the study of Simmons and Blyth (1987) who contrasted a group of pupils transitioning from primary to secondary schools against a group of pupils who studied from nursery directly through to Year 8.

Interestingly, they found that the transitioning pupils significantly dropped in their performance as opposed to the pupils that did not transition. Simmons and Blyth (1987) associated this with the stricter grading systems faced by the pupils whilst entering secondary school which was also confirmed by the findings of Wampler et al., (2002). It must be noted (as mentioned in the preceding sections); a decline in performance may lead to decreased self-confidence and motivation of the pupils (Eccles, 2004; Pajares & Schunk, 2001). Therefore, transition support programmes and intervention initiatives may need to focus on developing pupils' emotional regulation and coping strategies to be able to deal effectively and positively to such changes in the classroom context.

2.2.3. Transition and the academic context

A further concern for pupils is that they may experience a decline in their academic performances after transferring to secondary school (Dfe, 2002; Eccles et al., 2003; Qualter, 2012). Earlier educational research on academic performance focused primarily on age, ability, and curriculum; however, recent studies have explored other influential factors that could have led to the decline of academic performances in the context of schools such as the pedagogy, teaching styles and classroom settings. Discrepancies have already been mentioned in the previous sections that depict changes in the environment of the classrooms, and the teaching styles affect the academic performance and motivation. The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2000), whilst highlighting an academic decline across subject areas such as English, Maths, and Science, found that changes in the environment reflected the variances in attainment referring to school size and movement between classes, and developmental issues related to maturation. Academic declines in religious education and more generally across subject areas were also identified by Lenga and Ogden (2000). They implied that professional and institutional factors (i.e. communication between teachers, induction processes, and organisation), pupil related factors (i.e. inability to deal with changes in pedagogical practices and relationships) and teaching and learning styles (i.e. lower teacher expectations) were the fundamental reasons for a drop in attainment. Classroom differences such as less supportive pupil-teacher relationships, less focus on mastery of subjects and fewer chances of autonomy may also be problematic for some pupils during the transfer which could affect pupils' academic performance (Keys et al., 2013; Symonds & Galton, 2014). Sainsbury et al., (1998) reported

that the broadening of the curriculum experienced by the pupils directly after the transition was also linked to the decline in performance. Similarly, Ryan's study (2002) exploring the impact of transition on science attainment, implied that the decline in attainment was associated with the differences in the primary and secondary school curriculum structure, a lack or transition of learning between the two institutions, in addition to a lack of understanding of what each institution was doing.

A loss of momentum after the transition, manifesting in lower attainment, could also be due to the unwillingness of secondary school teachers not taking into account previous achievements across subject areas from the primary school (Ellis, 1999). Ellis (1999) found that baseline testing was being employed in the first term of secondary school, indicating that assessment data sent by the primary schools were not being used effectively. While exploring the views of secondary school children in Scotland, Fouracre (1993) highlighted a tendency of secondary school teachers underestimating the pupils' abilities, leading to the work expected of pupils being of a lower standard than that at primary school. Pupils in his study went onto explain that they found secondary school work like revision (Fouracre, 1993).

Research carried out by Newman et al., (2002) found that negotiation of peer relationships was regarded as fundamental and not secondary to the successful academic transition to secondary school. They found that pupils of all abilities relied on peers to assist them during difficult moments and moreover, could offer support when confronted with academic complexities and responsibilities. In addition, research has alluded to the fact that pupils study harder, perform better and have a stronger link with schoolwork when they are liked, accepted and respected (Blatchford, 2015; Zeedyk et al., 2003). For this reason, the upcoming section will discuss the social aspects (such as teachers, friends, bullying and the sense of school belonging) that might affect the process of transition.

2.3.4. Social aspects of schools affecting school transfer – teachers

The social environment of a school can have a drastic and far-reaching effect on the academic performance and social adjustment of the pupils (Kuperminc et al., 2001; Osterman, 2000). Studies by Ungerer and Schmid (2013) and Howard and Johnson (2000) found that pupils believed school was a centre of social learning rather than academic

learning and therefore, social aspects of learning could be a significant focus and integral part of transition support and intervention designs.

The period of early adolescence is recognised as the time when children begin to develop strong relationships with individuals outside of their homes (Eccles et al., 1991); however, the transition has often been associated with impersonal teacher-pupil relationships and decreased emotional support from teachers (Feldlaufer et al., 1988). In the primary school context, pupils are exclusively cared for by a single teacher in a self-contained classroom and moreover, their relationship with the teachers is personal. On the other hand, when those children enter secondary school, they spend less time in an individual classroom, and thus they have less opportunity to build up any relationship with the teachers. Tobbell (2013) observed that the pupils' first opinions regarding their teachers are based on the teachers' personalities rather than their teaching style and quality. The process of transition might significantly affect pupil conduct and academic achievement, and generally, it has been found that the pupil-teacher relationship deteriorates at the time of school transfer (Rutter, 2006). This may be due to change in teachers and pedagogy, as teaching is divided into numerous short intervals and teacher to pupil ratio increases. Subsequently, pupils need to become accustomed to new teachers who may seem to be stricter, commanding and less supportive compared to primary school teachers (Cantin & Boivin, 2004). This lack of support and monitoring by the teachers is interpreted by some pupils to mean a lack of care (Newman et al., 2000). As mentioned before, the number of teachers dealing with pupils multiplies providing less opportunity for the teachers to get closely acquainted with their pupils (Midgley et al., 1989). The setup of the secondary school day with different teachers, classrooms, peer networks and subjects could also lead to the decrease in motivation and competence for the pupils as they transfer from primary to secondary school (Eccles, 1989) and subsequently requiring a greater need for emotional support.

On the other hand, the teachers of the secondary schools stated a lower level of trust for the secondary school pupils as opposed to primary school Year 6 teachers (Feldlaufer et al., 1988). Eccles et al., (1993) found that secondary school teachers generally held negative generalisations of adolescents which led them to mistrust their pupils and detach themselves from the pupils. Subsequently, they mentioned that these types of measured relationships make it difficult for the teachers to identify the pupils who are facing difficulty

at the time of adjustment. Nonetheless, Pritchard and Woollard (2013) mentioned that the teachers could also positively influence the pupils from the primary to the secondary schools. A strong relationship between the pupils and teachers allows the teacher to supervise pupils' experiences in the classroom, offer developmental support (academically and socially) and direct the pupil's necessity for individuality, belonging and school attachment (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Osterman, 2000).Teachers are able to enhance pupils' social and academic self-esteem, encourage positive social and academic principles, alleviate emotional difficulties and nurture peer relationships (Blatchford, 2015; Wentzel & Watkins, 2002). It could thus be argued that teachers can play a fundamental role in helping pupils positively adapt to the secondary school and developing teacher-pupil relationships could be a focus of transition support and intervention programmes.

2.3.5. Friends

It is essential for pupils to adapt to the newer, larger and more intricate social setting of the secondary school during the transition and develop suitable social networks with new peers whilst possibly dealing with the loss of previous friendship groups from primary school (Eccles et al., 1989; 1993). The thought of losing old friends was a major concern for pupils prior to the transition (Cantin & Boivin, 2004). Pritchard and Woollard (2013) mentioned that extra social support at a time when adolescents are becoming more autonomous from their family can provide a positive impact on wellbeing and can guard against negative feelings of dissatisfaction. Moreover, the enhanced support from peers can protect the pupils from any detrimental effects of transfer (Newman et al., 2000). According to Bloyce and Frederickson (2012), support from peers can have a direct effect on the attitudes of the adolescents. The involvement of peer groups can either drive the pupils towards academic performance or push them away (Blatchford, 2015), whilst many pupils understood that peers could distract them from attaining their desired academic objectives (Newman et al., 2000). Longitudinal studies have revealed that peer associations were believed by the pupils to increase at the time of early adolescence (McDougall et al., 2001). Cantin & Boivin (2004) observed that even with a possible temporary decline in friendship groups, peers become increasingly more important as a means of support during early adolescence and relative to this research, the transfer. Hence, it has been established that those pupils who enter the secondary school with a group of close friends are less likely to face solitude and stress as

opposed to the pupils who begin afresh with completely new social groups in secondary school (Blatchford, 2006). Isolation could also be a concern during the transition phase however, no research was found exclusively focusing on this issue.

2.3.6. Bullying

Related to peers, a major concern for pupils during the transition is bullying (Hallam et al., 2006; Love et al., 2005). Hallam et al., (2006) mentioned that children are afraid and concerned about bullying which the children believe they may face at the time of transfer. Although many pupils feared bullying in the form of name-calling and physical abuse from older children, interestingly, it was seen that some pupils hoped that they would get freed from the bullying they used to face when they were in primary school (Lucey & Reay, 2000). Nevertheless, it was found that a lot of the hostility in schools was carried out by pupils toward their friends (Pritchard & Woollard, 2013; Pellegrini & Long, 2002), as a calculated ploy to gain dominance in the new social contexts (Pellegrini & Long, 2002).

Victims are generally recognised as socially withdrawn (Fox & Boulton, 2005; Hawker & Boulton, 2000) and those pupils with special educational needs (SEN) are seen to be more at risk of continuous bullying and cyber-bullying (Green et al., 2010; Cross et al., 2012). Myriad emotional consequences have been linked to victims of bullying at school including depression, anxiety and low self-esteem (Due et al., 2005; Hawker & Boulton, 2000) and a study by Card (2003) provided strong correlations related to bullying and low self-concept. The nuances regarding implicit types of bullying could include staring (to incite inferiority or uneasiness - Smith, 2004) with victims experiencing such bullying being reported as introvert, frightened and isolated (Coyne et al., 2006; Smith, 2004). This highlights the temporary effect and lasting impact of school bullying (Ttofi et al., 2011).

Low self-esteem, a lack of confidence and poor interpersonal skills are some of the characteristics of pupils that adopt the role of both victim and bully (Andreou, 2001; Carney & Merrell, 2001). Evidently, the specific roles mentioned (victim or bully) have distinct traits that could predict future involvement in bullying (as a victim or a bully). Thus, future research, particularly interventions aimed at transitioning pupils, could focus on this area.

Cross-sectional research of bullying pre- and post-transition found that bullying escalated directly after the transfer. However, it slowly reduced, possibly due to new social

organisations settling down (Pellegrini & Long, 2002). Nonetheless, evidence has shown that bullying decreases with age, gradually declining between the ages of 14 to 16 years old (Green, Collingwood & Ross, 2010). This could be due to the maturation of the pupils, the possible increased focus on academic performance and attainment or, as mentioned previously, the social organisations settling down. More sophisticated forms of bullying also emerge during secondary school in the form of group actions. For example, social exclusion, public humiliation, ignoring, rejecting and spreading nasty lies or gossip (Carney & Merrell, 2001); Eslea & Rees, 2001; Mynard & Joseph, 2000; Roffey, 2000; Smith, 2004) with older pupils participating in and understanding implicit forms of bullying.

Traditional forms of bullying have become more sophisticated over the years, and according to Smith (2011), cyber-bullying is a new type of bullying through modern technologies (mainly smartphones and the internet) used to harm victims using a range of activities including text messages, pictures, and voicemail. The advent of social networking sites, for example, Facebook and Instagram, have worsened the situation with bullying carried out through chat rooms, instant messenger, and even video clips. Differentiating between traditional bullying and the more modern cyber-bullying is based on the medium that the bullying is employed and the capacity of remote bullying. In its basic sense, traditional bullying consists of a peer-to-peer phenomenon with a child understanding and recognising a bully/bullies with the bullying taking a substantive form. Whilst, on the other hand, cyberbullying is largely remote, invading personal space outside of the forum of bullying (outside the school for example) and can invade the privacy of one's home and room through remote 'cyber' means. It can be perpetrated by complete strangers and can involve complex collaborations and leave no physical trail or marks.

Examples of different online bullying activities have been identified as: harassment, threats, stalking, defamation, ostracising, blackmail, hacking and revealing confidential secrets (Smith & Slonje, 2010). Technological advancements are likely to entice further types of cyberbullying in the future which complicates the adoption of an effective methodology of investigating (or even addressing) the problem. Therefore, creative and innovative methods are needed to investigate cyberbullying as a consequence of the new emerging media (Rivers & Noret, 2010; Underwood et al., 2012; Spears et al., 2009; Osvaldsson, 2011; Freis & Gurung, 2013).

Research has also suggested that cyber-bullying primarily occurs beyond the educational setting, yet relates to school-based relationships, as Smith and Slonje (2010) found that more than half of cyber-bullying originates in the wider school context with classmates or members of the same year group being targeted. Paul et al., (2012) in their longitudinal study of the Key Stage 3 years (Year 7 through to Year 9) also found many incidents go unreported, with over a third of cyber-bullying victims failing to identify those who target them, thereby complicating the efforts of identifying the perpetrators. While cases of traditional bullying are on the decrease, cyber-bullying incidences are certainly on the increase (Rigby & Smith, 2011; Rivers & Noret, 2010). Findings from the study conducted by Rigby and Smith (2011) highlighted that 22% of pupils aged between 11 and 16 had experienced cyber-bullying. Similar to traditional bullying, reports of cyber-bullying vary with difficulties arising when trying to make generalisations, as different countries adopt different cultural approaches for terminology and how the behaviour is carried out (Smith & Slonje, 2010). For instance, the viewpoint of cyber-bullying may vary amongst countries in the European Union when compared to what is agreed and understood in the United Kingdom (Nocentini et al., 2010). Nonetheless, with increasing technological developments and ease of access to multiple platforms of communication by adolescents the possibility that this will remain to be a part of the bullying resource in schools and persist into the near future necessitates for future research to systematically explore this phenomenon.

2.3.7. Transition and Sense of School Belonging

Goodenow (1993) in the educational context believed being a central, recognised and respected school member supported by classmates and teachers equated to a sense of belonging. This belief was endorsed by Voekl (1997) who included ‘identification’ (the degree the pupil integrated into the school) as a key part of the pupils’ self-concept. Thus, belonging begins to amalgamate the notion of commitment as it entails embracing the schools’ aims and values.

Furrer and Skinner (2003) highlighted the importance of school belonging particularly during adolescence and believed school belonging could prompt good behaviours such as increased effort, persistence and participation. Generally, it has been suggested that pupils with a stronger school attachment engaged more in class than those with a weaker attachment,

had the potential to build stronger relationships with teachers, in addition to improving over time and performing better academically (Roeser, Midgley & Urdan, 1996).

In primary school, the pupils are in a somewhat close-knit network accustomed to the settings and community. Generally, the pupils would have spent up to 7 years at the school, taken part in a number of events and activities, had different duties and responsibilities and so would have been regarded as an important member of the community. Voekl's (1997) study found that belonging in school associated with academic achievement and those pupils failing to connect with the school blaming it largely on the feeling that *"no-one in school cared for them"* (Voekl, 1997, p. 45). Hence, when some children move to secondary school, they feel detached from the surrounding as they may not know anyone or moreover, be 'unknown' themselves. Additionally, they hold no responsibilities and therefore, may sense a detachment and feel no sense of 'belonging' as they felt in primary school.

Akos and Galassi (2004), to understand the perception of the pupils during transition including the topic of new school bonding, prepared and distributed a school transition survey amongst the pupils. The results alluded that pupils adapted to the new routine and curriculum faster and more easily than adapting themselves to the new community and feeling a sense of school belonging (Akos & Galassi, 2004). Similarly, Edwards and Mercer (2013) found that transition was characterised with a decrease in the participation of the pupils in the activities of the new school, corresponding with a perception of less assistance from teachers and more stress (Edwards & Mercer, 2013; Seidman et al., 1994).

2.3.8. Emotional Intelligence in Education

School was conventionally viewed as a way to improve pupils' analytical and cognitive abilities. However, the important function of non-cognitive skills while improving learning and teaching practice has begun to take precedence (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005; Hargreaves, 1998; 2000; Love & Guthire, 1999; Love & Love, 1995). Pedagogically, Hargreaves (1998, 2000) believed a substantial level of emotional understanding is needed for teaching. A low level of emotional understanding from the teachers was noted to cause a misinterpretation of their pupils' learning, hence, seriously hindering the teachers' capacity to teach and assist the pupils in learning (Holt & Jones, 2005). Stickley and Freshwater (2004) assessed the level

of EI in nursing education where they concluded that when teachers gave minimal attention to the emotional development of their pupils, the teachers failed to show the importance of human relationships. On the other hand, teachers showing high levels of emotional understanding better understood their pupils, assisting them in the creation of a safe, secure classroom environment which enhanced effective learning in pupils (Holt & Jones, 2005).

In addition, neglecting pupils' emotional development denies the individual the chance to fully develop intellectually (Stickley & Freshwater, 2004). There is an argument that maintaining emotional development affects successful academic learning (Greenhalgh, 2002) and cognition and emotion must bear equal importance to the learning standards (Hargreaves, 1998; 2000). In light of this fact, there are now questions relating to the impact of emotional intelligence on pupils' education and attainment (Pekrun et al., 2002). Pupils' emotions were identified to influence academic motivation and conscious control of studying (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005; Wosnitza & Volet, 2005). Furthermore, positive emotions are noted to promote autonomous studying (Zimmerman, 2013) and facilitated self-improvement and self-evaluation (Trope et al., 2001), while negative emotions are noted to reduce the academic motivation of pupils and diminish their confidence to learn which ultimately decreases attainment (Assor et al., 2005). Similarly, Jaeger (2003) suggested that learning and emotion go hand in hand as pupils need to be emotionally connected to the topic being taught, so as to pay attention and learn effectively. Lack of an emotional connection with the subject being taught diminishes interest and the concentration of the pupils resulting in poor learning, which seem to link to the individual challenges pupils face during the transition as mentioned above. These viewpoints embody mounting evidence that are beginning to snub traditional perception of EI as an implicit liability on academic learning and instead promoting the notion that even small amount of emotions possess a rational and positive impact on promoting learning (Isen, 2008). Therefore, as emotions do not only support learning and teaching, they also directly contribute to it (Goleman, 1996; Hargreaves, 2000). The current schooling system may need to integrate the emotional dimensions of learning and teaching into the curriculum for pupils and into professional competencies and standards for practitioners (Hargreaves, 1998). For this reason, the next section of the literature review will critically analyse the key

theoretical concepts of emotional intelligence (EI), followed by evaluation of the research evidence pertaining to EI intervention programmes used in an educational context, with a particular focus on those interventions used with school children.

2.4. Emotional Intelligence Terminology and Key Concepts

A number of terminologies are used in describing the theoretical concepts of young people's social and emotional skills. Regarding intervention programmes with adolescents, initiatives are centred on enhancing resilience, self-regulation, emotional competence, emotional literacy and emotional intelligence in school-aged children and adolescents. The terminology used can elucidate the differences and similarities of the concepts, and when used accurately, the wording may reveal the application of these concepts practically. Yet, these terms are occasionally used interchangeably, sometimes incorrectly which does not clarify the theoretical basis of an intervention. Therefore, there is a need to clarify the type of theoretical concept being applied and how they can be accurately identified and understood when discussing emotional skills in childhood. The following section intends to find out the background of the terms while clarifying the approaches of comprehending emotional skills and understanding them in children.

2.4.1. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a concept that supplements the conventional notion of intelligence (IQ) through highlighting social, personal and emotional influences on intelligent behaviour (Gardner, 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Some researchers view emotional intelligence as an ability that involves cognitive processing of emotional information. Salovey and Mayer (1990, p.7) represent this form of EI (ability EI) which they defined as a group of inter-connected abilities;

"*…the capacity to accurately perceive, commend and express emotion; being able to cause feelings when they influence thought; being able to comprehend emotion and emotional knowledge; the capacity to curb emotions to facilitate for intellectual and emotional growth*."

Alternatively, some researchers believe EI should be viewed as a wider concept which involves motivational elements, personal traits and various distinct social skills (Bar-On,

2000; Boyatzis et al., 2000; Goleman, 1996; 1998; Petrides & Frurnham, 2001). Petrides & Furnham, p. 51) work includes trait EI which is defined as;

"*…a wide assortment of emotional self-perceptions found at the lower phases of personality…it refers to how an individual views their own emotional abilities*."

Alternatively, emotional intelligence is defined by Bar-On (2000, p. 14) as:

"*…a group of non-cognitive skills, competencies, and capabilities that promotes an individual's capacity to successfully cope with the pressures and demands of the environment.*"

Despite having various EI concepts and models made by different theorists (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1995) each model can be categorised to either a trait-based model, mixed model or the ability model which will be discussed later. Nevertheless, Humphrey et al., (2010) indicate that the term 'intelligence' comes with disadvantages and the word has been implied to be responsible for some of the 'controversies and hostilities' received from researchers. The reason for such antagonism could be due to some psychological perspectives that it is not a true representation of 'intelligence.' Furthermore, it could be as a result of the assumptions and unfounded implications the word intelligence has within the educational context and to its audiences including parents and carers. For a more critical analysis of emotional intelligence and its different models see section 2.5.3 and 2.5.4.

2.4.2. Emotional Literacy

Another dominant term used in the British education system which describes the learning and developing of emotional intelligence skills is 'emotional literacy' (EL), traditionally acknowledged by Steiner and Perry (1998). It also involves the management of one's feelings and those of other people being learnt and enhanced (Sharp, 2001). Using the literature of key authors in the field of emotional literacy and intelligence, Sharp (2001) indicates that emotional literacy comprises the skills of: handling relationships, empathy, motivating oneself, managing emotions and self-awareness.

With this view and understanding of emotional skills, it is believed that emotional literacy consists of abilities which can be promoted, trained and pursued instead of being a fixed entity (Weare, 2003). In addition, emotional literacy may allude to the way social and emotional competencies and skills are learnt (Elias & Arnold, 2006; Sharp, 2001); with a focus on practice and positing the notion that individuals can begin at various junctures and enhance at differing speeds, instead of focusing on the finishing goal (Coppock, 2007; Matthews, 2005; Weare, 2003). This assumes a notion that EL is learnt and developmental, instead of fixed and constant. Moreover, utilising the term literacy implies that the skills can be divided into specific aims and enhanced. For instance, emotional literacy can be taught by teachers in the same way as teaching the subject of literacy. Emotional literacy is, therefore, a suitable approach of practically introducing the idea of emotional intelligence in a UK school context. Southampton Psychology Service (2003) used EL to explain the skills found in Goleman's EI model, and moreover, others have used EL interchangeably with emotional intelligence (Haddon et al., 2005). Thus, the difference in terminology between EI and EL is distorted with researchers differing on whether these two entities are the same of different concepts. Some believe there is little or no difference between the two *"When the terms are unpacked both conceptually and practically, there seems little to differentiate emotional literacy from emotional intelligence"* (Haddon et al., 2005, p. 6) while others suggest that they are different concepts. Park (1999) believed that EL is seen as a process of developing the awareness and understanding of pupils by focusing on their emotional experiences and abilities while EI addresses the challenges of those seen to be lacking in the foundations of emotional understanding; controlling the social context in schools and other institutions.

Nevertheless, it has been suggested that the terms intelligence and literacy have different connotations and importance to the writer and audience which may impact the language employed. Key writers (Goleman, 1996; Steiner, 1997) in this area use both terms within their publications, yet the variances between EI and EL are still not easily identifiable or explicit, and thus, the reader must make their own distinction. Interpretation of these entities indicates that EL represents the teaching and development of said constructs as a practice instead of ability, whereas EI is a concept comprising numerous elements to refer to the capacity or competence a person has.

2.4.3. Emotional Regulation

Similarly, research on the enhancement of emotional regulation (ER) in adolescents has helped in showing how the development of emotional literacy can happen. ER can be defined as "*extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features to accomplish one's goals"* (Thompson, 1994, pp. 27-28). Principally, ER characterises a range of techniques a person may use to manipulate and change the physical, subjective and behavioural elements of an emotional response. With these strategies, this may mean that a person can influence the emotions they feel, and regulate the experience and expression of such emotions (Gross, 1998). Such descriptions highlight that the concept of ER consists of a wide range of processes, involving sub-conscious and conscious techniques employed to increase, decrease or sustain certain elements of an emotional response (Gross, 1998). With regards to the developmental perceptions on ER (Saarni et al., 1998) there are distinct influences on children's emotions and their capacity to understand social indicators taking account of their linguistic and cognitive development, social, emotional and personality development as well as their physical development (brain mechanism and chemistry). Therefore, emotional regulation may not be seen as a set of abilities and skills, but as mentioned before a process that partly happens and grows unconsciously, without being directly controlled by the child. Nevertheless, there are conscious aspects in relation to ER like the capacity of a child to apply techniques that enable regulation of their behavioural responses to emotion in order to behave appropriately in social situations. Being able to regulate one's emotions is dependent on interaction with the environment (Saarni, 1999) and understanding one's own emotion and how they are handled and expressed. Emotional regulation should, therefore, be regarded as an element of the intrapersonal aspects that influence emotional literacy; however, the understanding needed for recognition of one's own emotion can be viewed as emotional intelligence. Thus, consideration of emotional regulation is needed during the promotion of emotional intelligence and emotional literacy.

ER is believed to begin developing in infancy (Bridges & Grolnic, 1995), and continue throughout middle childhood and adolescence. This may be through the exploration of more complex rules and the need to develop and adjust more diverse and flexible ER techniques to meet the requirements of a progressively more complicated and challenging

social context. These developments could be associated with the neural changes happening during adolescence, in addition to the more developed social cognition (McRae et al., 2012). Children and adolescents who are able to flexibly and suitably employ ER techniques are more likely to have better relationships, engage in prosocial behaviour and display better social competence (Spinrad et al., 2006). Maladaptive ER skills are usually related to adverse outcomes, for instance, difficulties in social competence and school adjustment (Eisenberg & Fables, 2006). Developmental discrepancies in children's EI, EL and ER are believed to be associated with a lack of positive emotional exchanges between child and parent, lack of suitable emotional socialisation in addition to other aspects like temperament and bio-psychological responses (Kring & Sloan, 2010)

2.4.4. Emotional Resilience

Emotional resilience and resiliency are also terms used extensively in the field of EI. The journey to and achievement of '*positive adaptation despite exposure to significant adversity or trauma'* (Luthar, 2006, p. 3) in the psychological field is referred to as resilience. However, the definition of resilience and its function is contested due to the difficulty in measuring adversity and positive adaptation. Research has been carried out on the key factors affecting resilience; the 'protective' elements that help to mediate any difficult times, and those 'risk' factors that may add to negative consequences. A 'risk' has been defined as a factor or a mixture of factors which amplify the likelihood of an undesirable outcome that affects the child; a protective factor is seen as the feature which regulates the risk at hand (Newman, 2004). Previous studies define emotional resilience as the ability of an individual to cope in social and emotional situations effectively and thus EI may be directly connected to resilience, such that EI behaviour in stressful situations is adaptive. Nevertheless, other authors disparage resilience being a 'single location discourse' whereby resilience is found solely in an individual (Pianta & Walsh, 1998). They believe that resilience can only truly be understood through consideration of the interaction systems around the child instead of a collection of individual traits or skills capable of being explicitly taught.

Another objection of the term being used to depict one's skills and attributes is that there is a need for a more contextual and systematic perspective as the meaning of resilience itself also implies that it should not be utilised in describing an isolated set of characteristics.

Luthar et al., (2000) believed the following requirements should be met for an individual to be considered resilient: 1. The presence or some exposure to adversity 2. Positive adjustment regardless of exposure to negative circumstance. So what does the term emotional resilience refer? Emotional resilience is defined by one model as positive protective factors that could encourage coping successfully in the face of adversity (or risk factors) (Sun & Stewart, 2007). This can be linked with EI, as EI has also been recognised to counteract the impact of adverse experiences through emotional self-awareness, expression and management (Brackett et al., 2010; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Ramos et al., 2007). Many EI-stress studies have employed trait EI which has been found to be associated with actively coping with stressors (Salovey et al., 2002), lower subjective work stress (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002) and a beneficial moderator of the link between stress and health (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Such research may indicate that EI could foster resilience, though limitations arise around the lack of validity of self-reported EI. Nevertheless, there may be elements that influence resilience that may be promoted and learnt whilst attempting to enhance EI.

With regards to the promotion of emotional resilience through Trait EI factors, emotional resilience can be used as an inclusive term to describe the abilities which influence a positive outcome regardless of the risk at hand. There is a possibility then to utilise the idea of EI to promote general resilience focusing on the protective factors. A resilient individual is seen to have a number of characteristics, and research in this field continues to maintain the significance of certain universal factors as well as EI constructs related to resilience. Such factors include self-confidence, cognitive and self-regulatory abilities, exposure to caring adults and positive views of self-belonging in the community (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Masten, 2011); all which can be located and/or developed in the secondary school and related intervention programmes.

Nevertheless, a theoretical change has occurred in the field of resilience in that it is seen as a feature of ‘normal development’ instead of being ‘extraordinary’ and only applicable in difficult circumstances (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002). This is a shift away from a deficit model of development (i.e. only relevant in the face of adversity) to a strengths-based model of development (developmentally applicable for all individuals), and therefore, resiliency is common in everyone although in varying degrees. Thus, not every young person

is seen as ‘at risk’ or facing significant challenges will develop acute adolescent or school problems. Risk factors seem to be related to a broader developmental phenomenon rather than specific to certain outcomes, and therefore, it is probable that there is a multifaceted, intricate link between risk factors, protective factors, biological function and environmental elements which coalesce to predict an outcome (Goldstein & Brooks, 2005). Consequently, it is believed that resilience, like EI, is a natural developmental process with children acquiring the skills to utilise internal and external resources to positively adapt in spite of previous or related difficulties (Yates et al., 2003).

With this view, resiliency is more a modern form of positive psychology (Seligman, 2002) where the focus of intervention comes out as developing competencies instead of compensation for weaknesses or deficiencies as the traditional model (resilience during risk) may do. Consequently, Goleman (1996) argued that both personal emotional competencies (such as self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation) and social competencies (such as empathy and social skills) are required to enable resilience, in addition to Matthews et al., (2002) arguing that EI is an antecedent to resilience. It may then be argued that interventions targeted to build EI and resilience should be directed holistically as a comprehensive protective tool since EI and personal resiliency are present in all individuals and can also be developed. Although there are several external elements (or risks) relating to the environment, the main abilities are the intrapersonal attributes possessed by and within children and thus, promoting pupils’ personal resources, and individual factors could develop pupils’ overall EI as well as resilience. Therefore, appropriate to this research, understanding risk and protective factors and enhancing EI and resilience in young people through pertinent intervention programmes may promote positive outcomes and possibly explain why some pupils manage better than others during the transition.

2.4.5. The terminology used in this thesis

As shown above, there is a challenge in ascertaining a consensus for the use of a suitable terminology, and so the current thesis recognises the use of distinct terms from a number of authors which is reflected in the coming chapters. The term ‘Emotional intelligence’ (EI) is used throughout the thesis referring to the psychological frameworks whereas emotional competency and emotional literacy are employed interchangeably in the current research, due to the inherent and constant application of the TEIQue and trait orientation (Petrides et

al., 2003) throughout the existing literature. There does not seem to be sufficient evidence to suggest that these terms describe significantly different concepts (Perry et al., 2008) and as somewhat new concepts in the field of EI, further research is essential to authenticate the usage and application of these terms. Terms such as 'residency' and 'regulation' are used throughout the thesis depending on the specific author being cited.

2.5 Theory of Emotional Intelligence

2.5.1. The history of EI

'Social intelligence' is viewed as the foundation of EI which refers to "*the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls- to act wisely in human relation"* (Thorndike 1920, p. 43). Social intelligence was subsequently broken down into two parts; interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Sternberg, 1985). Interpersonal intelligence referred to the capacity to communicate effectively and respond to others while comprehending their intentions and moods. Whereas intrapersonal intelligence referred to the capacity of to understand oneself in addition to one's own motivations, intentions and feelings and to utilise them accurately in the management of one's life. Social intelligence was also alluded to by Gardner (1993) in his research as part of seven intelligences of the 'Multiple Intelligence Theory' that combined emotion with the cognitive aspects of intelligence. According to Scheusner (2002), the difference between intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence as explained by Gardner augments the underpinning theory of EI. Thereafter, social intelligence was utilised for a long period of time to express what is now known as emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer's article in the 1990's is where the first formal definition of EI was presented. This concept of EI was primarily introduced to characterise the capacity of an individual to manage their emotions. Subsequently, a number of authors later formulated various different notions of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997; Weisinger, 2006; Goleman, 1998, Petrides, 2001). However, all these notions on EI have a common foundation; that emotional intelligence generally refers to "*being able to identify and manage our emotions and those of others"* (Goleman, 2001, p. 5).

2.5.2. Emotional Intelligence and IQ

The education domain has defined intelligence in relation to academic intellect measured through the intelligence quotient (IQ) (Butler & Chinowsky, 2006). Modern society,

however, views intellectual ability as incapable of solely guaranteeing academic achievement and believes pupils should possess multiple intelligences. Thus, intelligence should be widened so as to include emotional and social factors in addition to cognitive factors (Mayer et al., 1999; Sternberg, 1985; Thorndike, 1937; Wechsler, 1958). This sets a new challenge for the educators and policymakers to generate an educational strategy to enhance social and emotional skills as well as cognitive abilities for pupils. Studies have been carried out which have revealed that EI can significantly predict success in numerous educational and professional spheres suggesting EI should not be refutable to IQ. EI should instead be viewed as complementary to intellectual intelligence which augments the conventional belief of intelligence by stressing the idea of social, emotional and personal contributions to intelligent behaviour (Gardner, 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Wechsler, 1958). Several studies on the relationship between EI and IQ support this idea and Mount (2006) in his study of EI and IQ in business management revealed that emotional competencies such as teamwork, international flexibility, organizational awareness, empathy and self-confidence facilitate the competencies of cognitive intelligence, individual skills and knowledge proficiency in achieving successful results. In essence, EI competencies generate a network that influences other competencies to intensify leading to more successful results. In another similar study, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) compared emotional intelligence and IQ and moreover emotional intelligence and leadership. They found that although EI and IQ were related, differences did exist between the two concepts. The results revealed an executive manager requires a high IQ to make it to the management level, however, upon attainment to that level IQ does not differentiate between a good or bad performing manager; rather EI becomes the main predictor of better performers.

2.5.3. Models of EI

The literature addresses three main forms of EI; Mayer and Salovey's Ability Model (1995; 2002), Bar-On (1997) and Goleman's (1996) Mixed Model and Petrides' (2001) Trait-based model. Mayer and Salovey and Mayer (1997) present the ability model which views EI as an actual intelligence domain which consists of certain mental and emotional skills. The use of maximum performance results is needed inability EI with the use of right and wrong answers and fundamentally belongs in the field of cognitive intelligence that is also measured by performance tests (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). There are four interrelated

abilities in Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model of EI; managing, understanding, using and perceiving emotions (see Table 1 for summary of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four interrelated abilities in their model of EI).

- **Emotional Perception:** the ability to comprehend one's emotions as well as other people's in addition to in music, stories, art, objects and others stimuli. It involves reading information expressed through body posture, colour, gestures, tone of voice and facial expression.
- **Facilitation of emotion:** the ability in creating and applying emotions appropriately for the communication of feelings or utilising emotions in alternative cognitive processes. This involves being able to relate emotions and mental images. Additionally, the facilitation of emotion comprises of understanding how the cognitive process is influenced by emotion such as communication, creativity, problem solving and deductive reasoning.
- **Emotional understanding:** the ability in understanding emotional information and how they link, work and develop various relationships whilst acknowledging the implication of these emotions.
- **Emotional management:** being able to be receptive to feelings, regulate them in oneself and others in order for personal growth and understanding.

Table 1: Summary of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four interrelated abilities in their model of EI

Bar-On (1997) and Goleman's (1996) mixed model of EI integrates emotional skills with factors of personality, motivation and social abilities. There are 20 competencies in the mixed model of EI which can be grouped into four categories: social skill, social awareness, self-management and self-awareness (see Table 2 for a summary of Goleman's (1996) mixed model EI categories). These abilities are viewed as independent (they all influence performance), interdependent (they relate to each other), and hierarchical (the competencies develop each other):

1. **Self-awareness** relates to understanding one's own internal state, intuition, resources and preferences. Self-awareness, also known as emotional awareness, is believed to be key skills of emotional intelligence and the skill to understand one's self-confidence, limits and strength.
2. **Self-management** this is the ability to manage one's internal state, resources and impulses. Six competencies are included in self-management which comprise of having the drive to accomplish, taking initiative, adaptable, conscientious, being trustworthy and self-confidence.
3. **Social awareness** is how individuals deal with relationships and identify the feelings of others, concerns and needs. It includes understanding others, empathy, in addition to the capacity to foster opportunities through different individuals.
4. **Social skills** is the capacity to induce desirable responses from other people such as promoting teamwork, collaborating with others, recognising change, inspiring others, management of conflict, being able to influence others and the capacity to generally communicating.

Table 2: Summary of Goleman's (1996) mixed model EI categories

Petrides and Furnham (2000), the founders of the third model - Trait EI, believed there was a comparable conceptual difference between trait and ability EI that was generated not only through the fundamental theory but through measurement issues. Trait emotional self-efficacy as it is also known encompasses *"a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions"* (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Trait EI includes behavioural characteristics and self-perceived abilities. This is assessed through self-report and includes constructs such as emotional perception, emotional regulation, empathy and impulsivity. This is in contrast to EI's ability model that ascribes and defines actual abilities measured through performance-based tools; thus, the ability models centres on cognitive ability as its main construct whereas personality is the key construct in the trait model of EI.

There are evident similarities and differences in the distinct models of emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey's (1990; 1993; 1994) work has similarities with those of other researchers of EI (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998) in their shared position of EI i.e. the capacity to express, understand, manage and evaluate one's own emotions (Songer et al., 2004). However, significant differences still exist. For example, Goleman's (1998) model of

EI involves empathy and motivation constructs while other researchers such as Mayer et al., (2000) view this as exceeding the EI boundaries. Similarly, Bar-On's (1997) EI model comprises of various other elements for example independence, self-esteem, and assertiveness. These factors also exceed the definition of EI from Mayer and Salovey (2000) who believed that EI development deals with the connection between emotional and cognitive elements of intelligence and cannot be viewed as an alternative group of personality components.

Furthermore, Druskat et al., (2006) believed that Salovey and Mayer's model was influenced by their view of EI as a form of intelligence; Bar-On's model was rooted in his interest in personal well-being, life success, and personality; and Goleman's model is attributed to his close interests with the competencies that encourage better work performance. With this, it is clear that the term EI is differently applied by different authors, and this has led to the existence of different methods of measuring EI resulting in significantly distinct findings. Thus, it is essential to clearly define EI terminology as well as the model utilised in any given research study.

This research uses the emotional intelligence model defined by Petrides (2000). Petrides' EI model should be investigated within a personality framework and subsumes Goleman's EI model. The researcher believed Petrides' model to be the most suitable for adolescents undertaking the school transition as Petrides' model of EI consists of personality traits which leads to a construct beyond the human cognitive ability.

2.5.4. Can Emotional Intelligence be measured?

In order to answer this question, there is need to review the research on measurement of emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (2000, p. 27) felt emotional intelligence was "*suggestive of a kinder, gentler intelligence- intelligence anyone can have*." Goleman (1998) added that EI contrary to academic intelligence is highly malleable and appropriate teaching and learning programs are thought to be effective enhancers. The theoretical models of EI were developed parallel with the development of tests to measure EI. The EI tests are evidently distinct with regards to its content, the approach of evaluation and the respective assessments are suitable for various reasons. The present emotional intelligence measures

can, therefore, be grouped into three categories as detailed below; self-report, informants and performance measurement or ability-based (Mayer et al., 2000).

Self-report measures solicit individuals to rate statements that indicate the level with which the participants agree or disagree with the statements. For instance, '*I can recognise the emotions being experienced by individuals through observing their facial expressions'* (Schutte et al., 2001). Such measures are time efficient, in addition, to being effective and are dependent on self-understanding. A possible drawback in adopting the self-report measures is that it can be accurate only if the individual provides their actual self-concept. However, if information regarding the self-concept of the individual is inaccurate, the results may not indicate information on the actual trait or ability of the individual (Mayer et al., 2000).

Using informants is the second approach utilised in measuring EI. Although it has been used in EI research (Koydemir & Schutz, 2012; Lopes et al., 2004), it is the least commonly used measure which has provided mixed findings. Informants give general information regarding how a certain individual is seen by other people and necessitates participants to assess the target individual on certain items (e.g. "*state on the scale (very low, low, average, high, and very high) the individual has scored for the following; being a good listener, not resistant to change, being open to ideas".* The advantage of the informants' approach is based on the ability of individuals to obtain wide-ranging characteristics from others. Yet, there is an argument that the informant approach can only accurately measure an individual's reputation instead of their actual traits (Mayer et al., 2000). Reputation is usually as a result of multiple factors, such as the treatment of other individuals around the target and the belief of the informant of how personality works (Funder, 1995).

The third approach of measuring EI is by using performance measures much like determining how smart an individual might be. Individuals are required to undertake tasks such as identifying emotions in a photograph of a face; answering multiple choice questions on the ability to understand how emotions change over time and the ability to match certain emotional outcomes in social situations. Mayer et al., (2000) view this as an accurate approach since intelligence is more a reflection of the actual ability to perform well in mental tasks other than the individual's belief in such abilities. Nevertheless, Jordan et al.,

(2002) disapprove of the theory of Mayer et al., (2002) who attempt to associate EI with cognitive ability. Jordan et al., (2002) do not feel it conforms to Gardner's (1993) theory of multiple intelligences, in particular to the elements of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence where the concept of emotional intelligence originates.

A finite measurement of EI has not been agreed upon as yet. There has been development of various instruments based on the multiple views of emotional intelligence in the last 30 years. The measurements differ in their content and their approach to assessment, in addition to different instruments existing for various reasons (e.g. Bar-On 1997; Goleman 1996; Sala, 2002). For the purpose of this research, self-report measures were used as they were deemed appropriate for the target age group of transitioning school pupils, as well as the nature of self-perceptions and self-concept of trait emotional intelligence.

2.6. Previous Emotional Intelligence studies

This chapter so far has discussed the theoretical assessments, models and aspects of EI. Moreover, it has provided a general understanding of EI used in the current thesis. Since Mayer and Salovey (1990) first defined emotional intelligence, research in this field has grown. There has been vast research on the topic by different researchers utilizing different approaches to investigate EI tools (Bar-On, 1997; Mayer et al., 2003; Sala, 2002); emotional intelligence professional contexts (Goleman, 1996, 1998, 2001) the 'everyday' applications of EI (Rosete & Ciarocchi, 2005), the relationship between EI and leadership (Ashkanasy et al., 2000; Goleman et al., 2002), the effect of emotional intelligence on team efficacy (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002; Jordan et al., 2002) and the legitimacy of emotional intelligence as an intelligence (Lopes et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 1999). The role and essence of emotional intelligence in school will now be critically assessed. There is a particular focus on the existing relations between school-linked achievement and EI. This leads on to the expansion of a widespread inclusive understanding of how behaviour and academic performance of pupils are affected by EI which how it can be applied in a secondary school education context. The results from previous studies can be grouped into four subjects, which frequently involve EI. These are the relationship between EI and education; EI and academic attainment; if EI can be taught; and previous EI interventions.

2.6.1. Emotional Intelligence and attainment – evidence-based studies

Research in the past 30 years has generated substantial evidence and revealed the existence of a positive relationship between EI and academic performance of pupils. One study utilising self-report measures assessed the emotional intelligence of undergraduate students and first-year grades which revealed a positive association between emotional intelligence and first-year undergraduate performance (Schutte et al., 2001). In addition, the outcomes showed that undergraduates possessing high intrapersonal and interpersonal skills were capable of handling the transition from high school to university in a better way. This could mean that the pupil's with high EI are less affected by the changes evident in university such as socialisation and complex learning and, as such, they are able to adapt accordingly. Another study which examined the transfer from college to university of Canadian students using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i: Short) revealed pupils who performed well academically (first-year grades of 80% and above) scored better on several dimensions of EI such as stress management, adaptability and intrapersonal abilities than pupils who were less successful academically (first-year grades of 59% and below) (Parker et al., 2005). Pupils who had higher levels of these skills were noted to be better at handling the emotional and social strain of the transfer between college and university compared with the pupils who had lower levels of these skills. Parker et al., (2006) later expanded his study utilising a bigger cohort (n=2000) to explore the association of academic achievement and EI for psychology students at the same university (Parker et al., 2006). The findings correlated with the past findings on EI being a substantial determinant of academic success. This highlighted pupils who scored higher in several dimensions of EI, performed better academically in relation to the students who scored low in similar dimensions of EI. Nevertheless, limitations of this study include convenience sampling, a single study used to complete the study, and problems inherent in self-report measures used in assessing EI competencies.

Additionally, a study by Abdullah et al., (2004) utilising the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) on a student cohort in the UAE also revealed the positive relation between academic achievement and EI. Students scoring high in EI experienced low instances of negative effects related to academic tasks, which could mean that pupils with the capacity to control their negative emotions on academic tasks can perform well in

exams and subsequently do better academically. Conversely, failure to control stress levels which diverted pupils' attention from the tasks at hand obstructed academic performance. In addition, Jaeger (2003), in a study utilising the EQ-I with postgraduate students also found positive relationships between academic performance and EI. Drago (2004) in his study of MBA students also alluded that academic performance was connected with the students' capacity to identify, utilise and control emotions subsequently highlighting the necessity to integrate emotional intelligence training into the university curriculum to assist students in developing emotional intelligence.

With regard to younger pupils, a study by Wilkins (2004) explored the relationship between EI and enrolment retention of high school pupils using the Exploring and Developing Emotional Intelligence Skills (EDEIS). The findings revealed EI abilities were related to memory in learners which indicates that EI could be deliberated in the models designed to enhance success in learners. Interestingly, a study by Boyce & Fredrickson (2012) of pupils transferring to secondary school, found that there was no relationship between academic success and cognitive ability (IQ) using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ); however, there was a link between academic success and EI. Such findings yet again affirm that EI can be viewed as practically and theoretically important to education, showing the need to develop the EI of pupils to promote their success in academic tasks.

2.6.2. Can Emotional Intelligence be Taught/ Enhanced?

Tthere is growing evidence supporting the correlation between school success and EI (Drago, 2004; Mestre et al., 2006; Parker et al., 2009; Shields & Cicchetti, 1998), however, there is little literature on the possibility of overtly imparting or teaching such a construct (Zeidner et al., 2002). Although Mayer (2002) believed that it is not rational to 'teach' intelligence, since intelligence is a pre-existing ability to learn instead of a skill which can be practised (Mayer & Cobb, 2000), more recent studies view intelligence as being more flexible than Mayer's conceptualisation. For example, there are forms of cognitive and non-cognitive intelligence involving reasoning and learning within a certain domain that can be improved by learning. For instance, verbal understanding is dependent on exposure to new terminology and meanings; such exposure increases the knowledge in which to apply understanding and so can be viewed as advancing intelligence (Sternberg, 2011). Thus,

there is the argument that experiences with emotional situations and varying emotions may prepare an individual to better handle and use the emotional knowledge learned in similar or more difficult situations and so subsequently improving their EI (Mayer et al., 2008). This can, however, be viewed as an indirect connection between EI and emotional knowledge. When combined with other inconsistent results from previous studies it reveals the reason as to why different authors acknowledge the need for research exploring emotional knowledge as a moderator of academic competence and social behaviour (Mestre et al., 2006; Shields et al., 2001). If a connection between school performance and EI exists, based on the previously mentioned research, EI is likely to play a mediating or reciprocal role (lzard, 2001).

To summarise, the studies indicate that it may not be the cognitive elements which give rise to the assertions of better school success but, there is evidence to suggest that non-cognitive elements (such as stress management, adaptability, and intrapersonal abilities) can substantially influence beneficial outcomes (Parker et al., 2009; Zeidner & Roberts, 2002). Most EI programs use a broad view of EI which consist of such non-cognitive elements, and so the focus is now directed to the various intervention programmes and their non-cognitive elements that will now be evaluated.

2.6.3. Review of Emotional Intelligence Interventions

Literature reviews focusing on group interventions linked with emotional interventions focus on mental health; looking to enhance mental health and 'wellbeing' in schools instead of emotional intelligence directly. Major reviews in this field were compiled by authors like Wells et al., (2003) and Shucksmith et al., (2007). A detailed assessment by Wells et al., (2003) on seventeen specifically chosen controlled studies from 425 studies dealt with whole-school non-cognitive approaches in promoting mental health. The majority originated from the USA and indicated that the utilisation of mental health interventions in schools had a "*positive impact on children's mental health"* (Wells et al., 2003, p.95). Moreover, certain programmes were more significant than others "*brief class-based mental illness prevention programmes had less impact than long-term interventions promoting positive mental health which also included changes to the school environment*" (Wells et al., 2003, p. 101). Therefore, it is believed that systematic, universal whole-school programmes could be

better than short-term targeted initiatives. Nevertheless, it has been suggested that this form of whole school intervention when combined with targeted interventions may epitomise the optimal approach (Wells et al., 2003). Contrary to the assessment of whole school non-cognitive programmes by Wells et al. (2003), a review by Shucksmith et al. (2007) explored the effectiveness of targeted programmes for promotion of mental health and wellbeing in American pupils. 32 studies were included in their review consisting of randomised and controlled interventions in schools again mostly from USA (the intercultural differences may limit the validity for the school systems in the UK. Weare and Gray (2003) highlighted the importance of creating a more meticulous and systematic assessment of interventions to create a more reliable evidence base for effective programmes in England). Evaluation of these studies revealed that despite the issues being addressed in these programmes (conduct disorder, depression, oppositional defiant disorder or anxiety), multiple approaches that utilize "*social skills and CBT for children, training of teachers and parents in the required intervention and better approaches of discipline"* tend to be more successful (Shucksmith et al., 2007, p. 88-89). Psychologists were used in most studies that were cited in the review instead of school staff while implementing these programmes. While dealing with aggressive children, there were interventions designed to utilise *"'normal' role models….to communicate more pro-social behaviour"* (Shucksmith et al., 2007, p. 40) which resulted in more positive results for the aggressive children. Therefore, it is evident that particular forms of targeted programmes could be favourable in ascertaining positive outcomes.

The Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning Program (SEAL) is one of the biggest intervention initiatives organised in the UK (Dfes, 2005) and to date, there have been over five evaluation studies of different versions of the SEAL programme. This consists of studies of primary SEAL (Hallam et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008) secondary SEAL (Smith et al., 2005; Wiglesworth et al., 2013) and family SEAL (Downey & Williams, 2010). SEAL has involved a whole-school approach in over 172 schools that included a range of school staff, parents and a broad age range of pupils. The work of Hallam et al.,(2006) was the first assessment of the use of the SEAL materials that consisted of an assessment of small group and universal approaches of SEAL in twenty-five pilot LEA's. Positive outcomes were found in the pre-test post-intervention research design of the whole school programme. This

indicated that teachers saw positive change in the pupils' attitude towards school, pro-social behaviour, playtime behaviour, bullying, relationships, social and communication skills, confidence, well-being, learning and attainment and understanding of others' emotions (Hallam et al., 2006). But, the study gathered the perceptions of staff only and not that of the pupils themselves. Clear differences in gender were exhibited in children through their responses (girls responded better than boys) however, a criticism of the study was that any differences could be age-related instead of being influenced by the input given, as the negativity of the responses correlated with the increase in age (Craig, 2009). There were a number of regression analyses which indicated positive changes in relationships, self-awareness, and social skills because of the pilot programme. However, the absence of a control group in the study ruled out the possibility of the pilot being solely behind the positive changes, as other factors could have influenced the outcome.

Similarly, a methodological issue was visible in the smaller pilot SEAL interventions. These were conducted with targeted groups where children were chosen because of "*withdrawn behaviour, poor response to sanctions and rewards, risk of exclusion, poor behaviour, social difficulties related to other children and other fears related to school attendance"* (Hallam et al., 2006, p. 20). The results indicated the presence of a statistically significant improvement in pro-social behaviour and emotional symptoms from pre- to post-test. Although this was supported by the parent's viewpoint (82% of parents felt the intervention influenced a positive change), the absence of a control group brought into question whether the changes observed were influenced by the pilot or other influence factors.

Thus, there exists some evidence (regardless of methodological limitations) that indicate social and emotional abilities in adolescents can be improved and interventions can be effective in developing pupils social and emotional skills, in addition to having a positive impact on the target population via small group activities.

Regardless of the limitations of the methodologies in the pilot SEAL programmes, the studies offer a useful foundation for additional exploration of the effectiveness of intervention program. As well as the pilot programme further evaluations were carried out on the outcomes of the small group SEAL (referred to as 'Wave 2' SEAL or ''silver set') in British primary schools. A study by Humphrey et al., (2008) used a mixed-method evaluation

of the influence of the small group SEAL in 37 primary schools, including qualitative data from twelve schools in the UK. The interventions lasted between 6-8 weeks with a single 30-40 minute session per week involving groups of participants with a variety of 'role model' and 'target children.' The evaluation of the SEAL small group materials ('Going for Goals' and 'New Beginnings') included a pre-post test control group design, whilst two additional two evaluations ('Good to be Me' and 'Getting On and Falling Out') utilized a single-subject design collecting outcomes from children, parents, and staff enabling data triangulation. Data was collected over three phases for each evaluation, and although a control group was not used, the authors believed the baseline data served as a control for the group. The quantitative outcomes highlighted a significantly positive influence where enhancements were evident in pupil behaviour, attitudes towards school and emotional wellbeing in at least one of the four evaluations that were also evident in the seven-week follow-up. In general, the average effect sizes were minimal, and some atypical results were found. For instance, the 'Getting on and Falling Out' intervention demonstrated *"a substantial decrease in staff rated empathy over the intervention phase"* (Humphrey et al., 2008, p. 87). Therefore, it is complicated to conclude the overall effects of the primary SEAL intervention (Humphrey et al., 2008). Whilst some positive influences are apparent, inconsistencies exist depending on the actual nature of the programme being used and do not necessarily reflect the results expected. With regard to the secondary SEAL pilots, the results indicated inconsistent results in relation to the pupils but positive findings from the teachers involved. Smith et al., (2007) indicated positive findings regarding pupil behaviour and emotional wellbeing; however, Ofsted (2007) did not find a significant effect on pupils' social, emotional and behavioural skills. The differences could again be due to the influence of external factors in the implementation of the SEAL in the schools and the reported difficulty of how to analyse pupils' specific social, emotional and behavioural skills. Nevertheless, the studies did identify important elements in relation to the practicability of programme implementation, particularly the need for good leadership, having a strong and clear ethos at school level and the importance of managing staff resistance.

The Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) intervention is another intervention used for enhancing social and emotional skills within UK schools (Humphrey et al., 2015). Similarly to SEAL, the intervention attempted to enhance a skill set connected to emotional

literacy although there is the suggestion that *"it involved a more structured and rigorous program"* compared to the SEAL (Curtis & Norgate, 2007, p. 12). Based on positive impacts in America (Greenberg et al., 1998) the programme was also introduced in the UK by psychologists. Humphrey et al., (2015) trialed the intervention in 45 schools with Year 5 and Year 6 pupils with randomly allocated control schools and found that PATHS did not have an overall positive effect on academic outcomes for the pupils. However, they did find that higher levels of exposure to the intervention were linked with better outcomes, although this may reflect the effect of attendance patterns in participating school. The mixed findings may indicate issues with regards to the cultural transferability of the programme. Curtis and Norgate (2007) completed an evaluation study of the PATHS programme which used pre-post test equivalent groups design that involved comparison groups although there was no random allocation of participants. Measurement tools involved the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire and interviews with staff held before and after the PATHS programme. The outcomes highlighted an overall positive effect following participation in the programme, where intervention participants demonstrated "*substantial improvement in all emotional and behavioural constructs (consideration, peer problems, hyperactivity, conduct problems and emotional symptoms, as measured by SDQ)"* (Curtis & Norgate, 2007, p. 37). Nevertheless, there were a few limitations of the study. The age range in the study only included children in Key Stage One, which excluded all children above Year 2. Thus, further research would, therefore, be necessary to conclude whether the positive outcomes could occur in older children. Other sources of data should also be investigated, for example, getting the views of parents and older pupils as well as the perception of teachers for triangulation of any data obtained.

In a Scottish primary school, Kelly et al., (2004) conducted a small-scale exploratory qualitative study after the implementation of a PATHS programme. Similar to Curtis and Norgate's study (2007) Kelly et al., (2004, p. 56-57) showed the possible benefits of the intervention encouraging "*positive social, behavioural and emotional changes in a class and individual level."* Yet, a criticism of the study could be that this was a single and small-scale research lacking a comparison group, meaning that any impacts may have been influenced by external elements and moreover, any impacts of the programme may be unique to the specific context. Nevertheless, the rich data collected from the exploratory nature of the

study allowed the investigation of school staff members' viewpoints of the implementation and possible positive perceptions of such programmes. It also indicated the fundamental role a schools' context can have (i.e. the schools implementation of the key beliefs and values of the programme) on the possible effectiveness of interventions such as PATHS. Regarding further research on intervention programmes, Kelly et al., (2004) firmly believe that involving staff perception is beneficial in capturing a holistic understanding of EI in a school context and in relation to positive contributions to research since *"user perceptions of the impact and appropriateness of initiatives closes the gap between academic theory and credibility and effective practice in context"*. Therefore, instead of being rejected due to possible bias, information from the staff should be valued to understand what is successful in schools.

2.7. Summary: The necessity of effective approaches to developing pupils' EI after the transition to secondary school

The literature review on primary to secondary school transition demonstrates that along with biological, cognitive and social transitions adolescents also experience a series of contextual adjustments while undergoing the transition from primary to secondary school. On the whole, it has been seen that the changes experienced by the early adolescents are not consistent with the developmental characteristics occurring at that time (for example the need for independence, intimate relationship with peers, enhanced self-awareness, heightened cognitive ability and matters relating to identity development - Eccles, 2004). Several schools have introduced orientation programmes both for the pupils and parents and amended the school curriculum and pedagogy in order to assist in the school transition and facilitate the developmental requirements of the pupils. In order to understand and fully guide such orientation and support programmes, further research on the transition is required. Research investigating the contextual and social variables during the transfer has been explored, yet the impact of emotional intelligence and transition is still under-researched.

The empirical EI studies that have been conducted in the educational context are primarily focused on evaluation tools (Schutte et al., 1998), attainment (Drago, 2004; Jaeger, 2013; Parker et al., 2004; 2009) and have mainly been carried out in the USA by utilising

quantitative research.Moreover, very few emotional intelligence studies have been conducted in the UK educational context and even fewer during the transition period. Therefore, apprehension has been expressed in regard to the requisite skills and abilities of pupils making the transition from primary to secondary school. In particular, school practitioners have conveyed concerns regarding the inadequacy of social and emotional abilities, for instance, empathy, resilience and motivation demonstrated by the pupils during and post-secondary school transition. Consequently, there is a requirement to understand the level of EI of pupils during the secondary school transition in the UK, and how intervention programmes can develop pupils' EI. Without such understanding, it will be difficult to comprehend whether current initiatives have equipped pupils to successfully transition to secondary school, or furthermore if pupils are fully equipped with the necessary social and emotional abilities to continue and flourish in education.

Previous research has shown a significant association between emotional intelligence and attainment (Drago, 2004; Jaeger, 2013; Parker et al., 2004, 2009). However, the literature has also indicated that pupils fail to make the expected progress during the year immediately following a change of school (Galton et al., 2003). Moreover, educational development is hindered for pupils who do not have sufficiently developed EI (Chinowsky & Brown, 2004). In spite of the extensive calls for practitioners and policymakers to give more attention to enhance pupils' EI abilities, school transition literature has yet to offer effective protocols of teaching and learning practice to develop pupils' EI skills. Very little is known about the design of an intervention and how it can be taught to pupils to develop their EI, and this is especially relevant in the transitional context.

The lack of clarity and limited availability of the research to mainstream educators at this time leaves schools with no clear guidance on how to identify and support pupils who may experience greater difficulty transferring from primary to secondary school. As a result, pupils are often singled out as 'likely' to need additional support based upon a single deficit they are perceived to have which is 'likely' to make their transition experience difficult (e.g. poor social skills, or a shy demeanour). Most decisions are not made drawing upon the available evidence base or using a valid and objective screening tool. It is often class teachers and special educational needs (SEN) coordinators of primary schools who are left with the task of identifying pupils based upon their professional judgement of who needs

the most support at this time. Whilst there is an argument that primary school teachers know the children they are working with extremely well and so are well placed to make such decisions, an alternative perspective is that teachers are more likely to attend to children who exhibit externalising problem behaviours (i.e. aggressive or antisocial behaviour) and more likely to overlook quieter, withdrawn children who represent no management difficulties within the school context (Howard et al., 1999). This situation poses the risk that some children who would benefit from additional support around the time of transition may go undetected. Nonetheless, education professionals looking for ways in which they can help such children achieve a more successful transition have begun to implement intervention groups in schools aimed at addressing vulnerable children's anxieties or teaching the skills they lack (e.g. programmes to familiarise the children with their new schools, social skills, behaviour/anger management groups etc). This, however, seems to take a deficit model approach (focusing on vulnerable children) whilst overlooking the majority of pupils who may also benefit from socio-emotional learning.

Therefore, more rigorous identification and intervention methods are required than those used in the research papers cited in the literature review. Interestingly the few available reported intervention studies have chosen to identify groups of children by different singular risk factors, thereby attributing greater emphasis to the influence of one area of deficit on negative transition experiences than any other factor identified in their contemporaries' research. However, this is unsurprising as the very extent of the factors that have been identified in the current research as potentially impacting positively or negatively on transition are too many to address within one intervention programme. Additionally, the focus on different areas of risk in intervention studies may be further indicative of the ambiguity in the literature as to exactly who is most vulnerable at this time and what area of EI to focus.

To further add to the challenges of intervention studies, it is also important to acknowledge wider sociological perspectives and deficit models that may impact the transition to secondary school and EI. As has been noted, the transition can lead to heightened vulnerability for many pupils, yet this time may be especially problematic for pupils that are already at risk of experiencing academic challenges. This may include but not limited to

ethnic minority pupils, those from lower socio-economic backgrounds and pupils with diverse family structures. Research has shown that pupils from minority and disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to experience academic difficulties, complete fewer years of schooling and more likely to withdraw from school (~~Brooks-Gunn et al., 1991; Connell, Spencer, & Aber, 1994; Duncan, 1994;~~ Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Richardson, 2008; Woodfeild, 2017). Such pupils may also face inequalities with regard to school resources and educational opportunities (Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Banerkee, 2016) and teacher and minority pupil relationship practices may also contribute to the gap in pupils' achievement and experiences.

Therefore, there seems to be an epistemological dilemma as emotional intelligence is, arguably, socially, culturally and politically positioned and created. The concept of EI and the subsequent interventions thus reinforce narrow-minded norms that portray part, not all, of society. Certain groups fall outside of these normalised, standardised notions of social and emotional learning. A question then arises "should such feelings and values be dictated by the schools?" and "who gets to decide what legitimate knowledge or truth is?" (Evans, 2011, p xiii). Recent EI intervention programmes like SEAL and PATHS were developed by specialist psychologists and practitioners funded by the local government that had no input from pupils and did not take into account what pupils and/or families considered important in supporting their mental health and wellbeing (from reports such as the DSCF Childhood Wellbeing Report, 2008). EI approaches are often believed to be externally observable and presume clinical experts know what pupils need, to have 'good wellbeing'. Therefore, the notions of EI can be argued to be blind to the subjective, contextual and relational nature of wellbeing (Watson et al., 2012; Boler, 1999).

The theory of EI puts the onus of the pupil to manage their inner states, constructing 'emotional rules' and systems that legitimise some reactions and not others (Hochschild, 2003; Foucault, 1995). With regards to diversity, this covertly reinforces existing structures of class and race privilege (Burman, 2009). Similarly, when pupils and young children are seen to be responsible to regulate their emotions, a neo-liberal viewpoint is taken on the matter in that 'we are all responsible for ourselves instead of being interdependent' (McLaughlin, 2008). Burman (2008) reinforces this argument by stating individual children

are blamed for poor skills and impulse control and further argues that certain versions of EI wash away any reference to gender, class and race, with such characteristics becoming devoid leaving the classical humanist subject. While it is argued that EI increases educational success (see section 2.6.1), others would challenge locating EI solely with an individual and argue that social inequalities will inevitably lead to educational inequalities, and interventions around EI and other psychological traits are a distraction from the 'real' issues (Bottrell, 2007; Ecclestone and Lewis, 2014;).

Furthermore, it can be seen that schools play a part in reinforcing and reproducing inequalities through systems and practices that privilege certain pupils. The increasingly deepening class system is only being exacerbated by the power of academies and free schools to select certain pupils over others (Jenkins et al., 2008), the tax breaks for private schools, and the underfunded and increased competition between comprehensives (Gorard, 2014), all which accumulate to create an environment where the select few are set on the path to succeed while the rest are left stranded. Nonetheless, some believe that these neo-liberal reformations have the ability to accomplish more efficiency and competitiveness in conjunction with a forward-looking, impartial and socially progressive agenda (Giddens 2007). Yet, others reject this by arguing that the practices motivated by the values and principles of social justice and equity are hindered by the focus on individuals' performativity rather than the broader and collective aspects of schooling such as developing EI (Ball 2000). As inequalities deepen against a backdrop of escalating levels of children living in poverty, it is the time to call for change. It should be noted that in addition to these points, one of the limitations of the research cited above is that the studies were not explored intersectionally (Christoffersen, 2017; Crenshaw, 1989), which if explored may exasperate the findings further. Group differences can be seen to have a profound impact on schooling and therefore should also be considered in the emotional intelligence discourse. Roberts, Zeidner and Matthews (2001) conducted one of the few studies that explored ethnic group differences in EI. Even though they found conflicting results, they argue that it is imperative to investigate group differences in the realm of EI. Even though it is outside of the scope of this thesis, it is problematic and unreasonable to locate EI solely within an individual and the deficit models that this may promote and so further research should use more fine-grained analysis to explore these wider sociological differences.

In the range of research papers that evaluate intervention programmes, children were selected for involvement by the following factors: low emotional intelligence (Qualter et al., 2007); shyness and withdrawn behaviour (Shepherd & Roker, 2005); emotional, behavioural and social skills deficits (Wassell et al., 2007); low socioeconomic status, academic attainment, and multiple life stressors (Jason et al., 1993). While these studies report mainly positive outcomes of these intervention groups, it must be acknowledged that the selection of pupils has been based upon inferences from research into the general population of transferring pupils (as discussed above), as well as from incomplete individual difference research relating to transition. Therefore, the studies do not control for other extraneous variables that may be influencing the positive outcomes. For example, a pupil who participated in an intervention group aiming to boost social skills may already have had good coping skills and an optimistic outlook that supported their transition to secondary school. In addition to this, as many of the factors identified as influencing transition success are in similar psychological domains (e.g. social skills, friendship, self-esteem, beliefs about the future, etc), it is possible that the interventions themselves unintentionally addressed multiple areas of deficit, meaning that the original deficit itself may not have been the best factor upon which to initially select the pupils involved.

Given the insufficient EI research on early adolescence, particularly during the secondary school transition, this research will examine the impact of a personalised EI intervention programme on pupils during the transition to secondary school and use it to understand how to enhance and develop pupils' emotional skills and academic performance. A clearer understanding of pupils' EI in a specific context and the capabilities of bespoke interventions to positively impact pupils' emotional intelligence could be beneficial in creating pupils that are equipped to handle the future requirements of later education and importantly later adolescence.

2.8. Research questions/aims

Study 1 research questions:

RQ 1: What are the most effective aspect(s) of EI (in this research's schools context) in which to focus an intervention to increase pupils' EI skills and abilities and improve academic performance?

Study 2 research questions:

RQ 2: Will Year 7 pupils EI and academic scores improve as a result of participating in an EI intervention programme?

RQ 3: Will the effects of an EI development programme be apparent on self-awareness and empathy after an 8-month follow up evaluation?

Study 3 aims:

RQ 4: What are the intervention participants' views on their EI, post-intervention, and their perceptions of the role of the programme on it?
RQ 5: What are Year 7 pupils' understanding of EI and its significance during the transition to secondary school?

Chapter 3 – Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter explores and critiques the methods and the final design used for this thesis. This is discussed with regards to the current methodology and specific methodological issues that relate to this thesis with a focus on various epistemological perspectives and principles, a purpose and rationale for the research design, and the ethical considerations pertinent to the present research. The methodology used in this research was chosen in order to explore, design and evaluate the role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the development of adolescents' social and emotional skills, abilities and academic performance. Consideration was given to investigate the effect of an EI intervention for pupils who recently transitioned from primary to secondary school, as well as capturing a rich and in-depth account of the education setting in which EI exists and the pupils and teachers experiences of it.

Epistemology is important in research as "*researchers must first examine their underlying assumptions about the nature of reality and knowledge to make sensible decisions about all of the other steps in the research process,"* (Mertens, 1998, page xiv). The two epistemological approaches that are heavily discussed in the educational literature are positivism and constructivism. Positivist researchers believe positivism to be more rigorous, giving more reliable data and a greater degree of objectivity, but only describe a small part of what is going on (Bryman, 2003). Constructivist research on the other hand, while far less controlled, is seen by some as more worthwhile, in that deeper personalised information of the participants can be obtained (Bryman, 2003). A consequence of constructivist approached data is in the organisation of that data, the greater risk of bias and less comparability or generalisability across studies. According to some researchers *"constructivist research is not reducible to quantity or amount. It is often difficult to demonstrate the reliability and generalisability of such accounts"* (Sommer & Sommer, 1997, p. 126). Positivist research is seen by some as high in reliability and low in validity while constructivist research is seen as high in validity and low in reliability (Bryman, 2003; Mertens, 2014). In deciding which of the above epistemology and method of collection would be the most appropriate to elicit meaning for the current research; positivist approach with its emphasis on reliability, or constructivist approach with its emphasis on validity, the following was taken into account.

Most studies in the literature concerned with trait emotional intelligence and self-perceptions of pupils are empirically based. This means they interpret the scores of EI and other rating scales in some form of statistical analysis and are primarily concerned with group results (nomothetic) (See literature review section 2.9). Therefore, the researcher believed that in order to make viable comparisons with the established literature it was necessary for this research to follow suit to some extent, but also go beyond this approach and question the assumptions and possibly challenge such previous research. Furthermore, the data collection is theory-led for the majority of studies in this field. Therefore, the main aim of this thesis was primarily theory and data collection led using parametric and non-parametric statistical analysis to look for any difference between the intervention and comparison groups for all measures involving rating scales.

In addition, the suggestion that trait EI affects academic performance in the classroom presupposes that there are known, identifiable predictor variables (trait EI and self-perceptions) and a determined outcome variable (academic performance); whereby a causal relationship exists. This focus on developing a possible causation (Slavin, 2002) is critical for the evaluation of educational interventions and initiatives, similar to that of this research, and conducting positivist experimental designs provokes deliberation of the generalizability, validity, and reliability of the results obtained (Robson, 2011). Opponents of positivism argue, however, that whilst casual links can be determined in the natural science field (e.g. physics) research with human participants and as pertinent to this research the school setting, cannot be the case as teachers and pupils construct meaning in the context. Therefore, the same degree of experimental control to determine cause and effect cannot be ascertained. Hammersley (2007) also questioned the validity of acquiring "clear-cut causal relationships" in educational research owing to the irregularity of measurement tools and the adaptive and dynamic essence of teacher-pupil behaviour. Becker (2008) also argued that it was impossible to conduct research that was 'uncontaminated' by personal and political views whereby the understanding of knowledge is affected by previous experiences of the world (Becker, 2008; Coolican, 2013).

Given the complexity encompassing the theory of EI and the numerous constructs incorporated into the theory, it could be argued that pupils' EI can be influenced by experiences both in and outside of school. In addition, EI development during adolescence may also reflect parental mentality and ability (Fonagy et al., 2002), teachers and other significant adults in the pupils' lives. Therefore, the impact of the school setting and external factors cannot be ignored, and the pupils' sense of self-perceptions could be said to be socially constructed by their daily experiences. A criticism of positivism emanates from the constructivist notion of multiple views of reality, rendering the positivist pursuit of a single truth as irrelevant. As Cohen et al., (2013) suggests, positivism is criticised for being reductionist (focusing on small parts, as opposed to taking a holistic approach of the context being studied), dehumanising, and moreover unable to explain individual, inner experience, and subjective issues. Hitchcock & Hughes (1995) further state, education and human participants are so complex that it is of very limited value to focus just on what can be statistically measured. A qualitative approach provides openness and flexibility, which is

significant in providing richer data that realistically, captures human thoughts and actions. This research, therefore, incorporated qualitative data collection, and it was hoped that the qualitative approach would provide an opportunity to generate new hypotheses. The qualitative approach seemed particularly suitable for exploring and investigating developmental processes, including processes that consist of complex phenomena and a multitude of considerably intertwined, whilst not yet completely-elucidated elements (Shaviv-Schneider, 2006) as in the case of emotional intelligence development in adolescents.

The goal of this research is to uncover what is happening to pupils who have recently moved to a new school; an experience during a complex developmental period of their lives, to gain participants' personal perspectives. Importantly, the qualitative approach provides a chance to look at the bigger picture, as well as provide opportunities to explore smaller parts that incorporate rich descriptions.

Understanding emotional intelligence in the educational domain and enhancing adolescents' emotional and social abilities is thought to be a multi-faceted, complicated (Neale et al., 2009) and significantly personal process (Boyatzis et al., 2000), consisting of numerous realities (Fer, 2004) and interconnected personal and organisational aims (Bharwaney et al., 2007). Matters of personal identity and inherent habits and behaviours are related to these individual processes (Cherniss et al., 1998) and influenced by the context in which they occur (Kram & Cherniss, 2001). Supporters of constructivism sometimes view positivist approaches as being incapable of comprehending the complexity of human behaviour and social phenomena. This is a concern common in school-based research where the complexity of teacher-pupil dynamics, human interactions, social experiences and myriad external factors in the school context pose challenges to positivistic studies in developing a genuine controlled investigation (Willig, 2013).

Qualitative constructivist research is modelled on the notion that individuals or systems operate uniquely, whilst equally having legitimate viewpoints of a situation. Various interpretations can be made of similar experiences within a given context. In this respect, it provides greater opportunities in attaining realistic information and for the participants to share their true experiences. Arguably, personal and emotional experiences, particularly

among children experiencing emotional and behavioural challenges (like that faced during the transition), cannot be classified numerically, as this will lead to a loss of valuable meaning and understanding. The focus of the research must, therefore, look beyond statistical significance to produce an enlightening and clear account of a given situation corresponding with the details of the research.

Concerning another important aspect of the present thesis, namely understanding teacher's perception of EI, Day et al., (2006) found that research involving practitioners' viewpoints increasingly investigate the influence of the context in which the research is conducted. Similarly, it is believed that the positivist approach is likely to be too simple or shallow based on the data gathering tools, the synthetic context and the failure to examine the relationship between the researcher and participant (Carr & Kemmis, 2003).
Nonetheless, constructivism has been criticised for developing a greater researcher bias, problems of replicating the study, issues pertaining to reliability and validity, in addition to making wide-ranging declarations about social behaviour (Coolican, 2014). Opponents of constructivism argue that such subjectivity in research makes it difficult to test in practice, particularly in a school setting, and furthermore, researchers conduct research with particular theoretical lenses which may influence their interaction with participants or even their understanding of the findings, leading to biases in the outcomes of the research.

Scientific paradigms and constructivism cannot be compared and assessed with the same criteria, yet authenticity and credibility need to be reached without arguing absolute certainty. For this reason, it is difficult to reach a consensus, and research within an educational setting and moreover with human participants will forever be problematic. Robson (2011) argues that the positivist versus constructivist debate is unproductive. There are suggestions that the inclination of researchers to unconditionally support a quantitative or qualitative paradigm may lead to the rejection of other paradigms (Kuhn, 1962). According to Kuhn (1962), the curiosity and creativity of researchers may be limited by strict adherence to one paradigm, restricting the exploration of real world research through a variety of alternative, suitable approaches. Gorard and Smith (2006) and Ercikan and Roth (2006) similarly contend against pledging allegiance to constructivist or positivist paradigms instead, ascertaining that the two frameworks are compatible. Bell (2014) also maintained that it is perfectly possible to use qualitative methods in what is primarily a quantitative

piece of research and vice versa, with Verma & Mallick (1999) maintaining that there is no recognition that it can be useful to combine elements from both traditions withstanding any theoretical and epistemological positions.

In addition to the existing paradigm debate, exploration of the 'research problem' is prioritised by the pragmatism paradigm so as to circumvent such issues. Newman et al., (2003) propose that when research aims are complex, it necessitates having numerous questions and this often requires the use of a pragmatic approach. Moreover, Johnson & Onweugnuzie (2004) highlight the advantage of pragmatism in that it acknowledges the value of both qualitative and quantitative methods, and that utilising both offers the most effective way in answering specific research questions. The research question determines the procedure of data collection and analysis, with the chosen methods being perceived as the most appropriate for investigating the selected research question. Consequently, pragmatism is viewed as the philosophical framework which relates to the mixed methods approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

Pragmatism incorporates characteristics of both viewpoints and regards quantitative and qualitative methods as apt for different reasons. Epistemological matters are not seen on two opposite poles but as existing on a continuum. The two most important features of pragmatism are seeking practical answers for questions and rejecting the inflexible either-or selection of constructivist and positivist positions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Pragmatism perceives knowledge as constructed and built through an individuals' reality and the world they live in, however, also accepting positivist viewpoints on the existence of an external reality independent of our minds. Pragmatists, however, do not agree with the fact that it is possible to determine an absolute truth about reality and outcomes from an investigation are conditional and partial. With regards to casual relationships, they may exist but are believed to be transient and difficult to ascertain (Dewey cited by Kadlec, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Pragmatist researchers, therefore, support pluralism; the notion that different ideas and viewpoints and a mixture of different approaches are useful to learn about people and the world.

The collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data in one research project, whereby data collection happens sequentially or concurrently and include combining the

data at some stage in the research is known as mixed methods (Creswell et al., 2003). Mixed methods can be utilised when both the constructivist exploratory questions and evaluative positivistic questions need to be addressed in the same study (Brannen, 2005; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). A mixed methods research evades the restrictions enforced by the allegiance to one single paradigm or related methodological approaches (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006) and thus, the study benefits from delving into deeper detail, gaining additional data to reinforce the conclusions and exploration of the social phenomena holistically. Furthermore, as this research is concerned with generating an understanding of the role of EI at both the macro (school) and micro (classroom) levels it transcends one single paradigm (Brannen, 2005). At the macro level; this research is focused on identifying any patterns and trends of the intervention programme on pupils' trait EI and academic achievements and furthermore seeks to pose structural explanations. At the micro level, the emphasisis is on the teachers and pupils seeking to understand the subjective interpretations and perspectives of the transition period and the role of non-academic variables in secondary school. Nevertheless, research with human participants generally includes an attempt to understand individuals in wider society. Therefore, to conceptually go beyond the macro and micro levels research designs and methods need to be developed to manifest such transcendence (Kelle, 2001). Mixed methods have been used previously in studies of institutional educational effectiveness (Sammons et al., 2005). They justified using mixed methods where *'complex and pluralistic social contexts demand analysis that is informed by multiple and diverse perspectives'* (p221), implying that the use the mixed methods strengthened the findings of the research. Even though some studies have used mixed methods to evaluate intervention programmes, they have mainly been structured so that the constructivist qualitative approach follow or support the positivist quantitative approach (Fox & Boulton, 2005; Ohl et al., 2008; Goalen, 2013). This shows preference of breadth over in-depth research in educational interventions, disparaging the humanistic, personal context of the school setting which may be the reason behind the mixed findings of such programmes. To date, there has been no previous research that has explored and evaluated the context prior to delivery of such programmes, which this research believes will not only provide significant statistical results for the intervention programme but will also provide a wider holistic notion of the role of EI and EI support in the secondary school setting for both the pupils and staff.

Therefore, the current research intends to assess the influence of an emotional intelligence intervention for secondary school children utilising a mixed methods methodology including both qualitative and quantitative research. The quantitative evaluation of the efficacy of the intervention was the principal interest of the study, and therefore, the emphasis of the current research was on a fixed, quasi-experimental design. In addition, features of a flexible naturalistic inquiry design were also included in the research. This consisted of a primary exploratory stage to identify the most effective aspects of EI in terms of interventions followed by a second exploratory stage to gain a fuller more complete assessment of how the participants viewed the intervention in addition to obtaining pupils' understanding of EI. This qualitative aspect of the research is deemed necessary given the complexity of the phenomena being investigated, in addition to exploring the subjective, contextualised perceptions of the pupils and teachers in a school setting, and the subjective viewpoints of the participants after participating in an EI programme. A pragmatic epistemological standpoint is thus adopted with which the research question(s) is the focal point (Hanson et al., 2003). Moreover, the selected research methods are believed by the researcher to be most suitable to fully examine the respective research question.

3.2. Research Design in the Current Research

The research design will now be discussed in order to allow the readers to draw conclusions about the integrity and efficacy of the intervention (Lane, 2004). This may also allow replication of the intervention and/or research design (Flay et al., 2005); "*An adequate description of a program or policy includes a clear statement of the population for which it is intended; the theoretical basis or a logic model describing the expected causal mechanisms by which the intervention should work; and a detailed description of its content and organization, its duration, the amount of training required, intervention procedures, etc. The level of detail needs to be sufficient so that others would be able to replicate the program or policy*" (Flay et al., 2005; 154). A sequential embedded mixed methods design was utilised in the current research consisting of qualitative and quantitative studies.

A mixed methods methodology utilising a quantitative approach was essential for informing the central questions on the impact of an EI intervention for young individuals adding to intervention evaluation research and evidence-based practice. The qualitative, naturalistic element allowed for illumination for initially a focus for such interventions concluding with

evaluating the experience of participants in the intervention. Answering the research questions required the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, and therefore, the methodology was viewed as appropriate for the current study. Strengths from one method are used to overcome the weakness of other methods; conclusions are strengthened by converging and corroborating outcomes, adds awareness and understanding of topics, generalisability is increased, and theory and practice are informed by a more thorough understanding (Johnson & Onwuebuzie, 2004). Furthermore, the study should be able to "*stand up to the scrutiny of both the field of practice and the academic community's expectation that it be systematically undertaken and theoretically robust*" (Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2007, p. 201).

With regards to this research, a sequential embedded mixed methods research design was used (Creswell et al., 2003). Within a sequential embedded research design, the premise is that a sole data set is insufficient, various questions need answering, and each set of questions needs a different type of data. This design is normally employed when the objective of the researcher is to make use of either qualitative or quantitative data in answering research questions in a more quantitative or qualitative research. The use of an embedded design is particularly important when the researcher is required to incorporate a qualitative component in a quantitative design as it is in an experimental or a correlational design (Hanson et al., 2005).

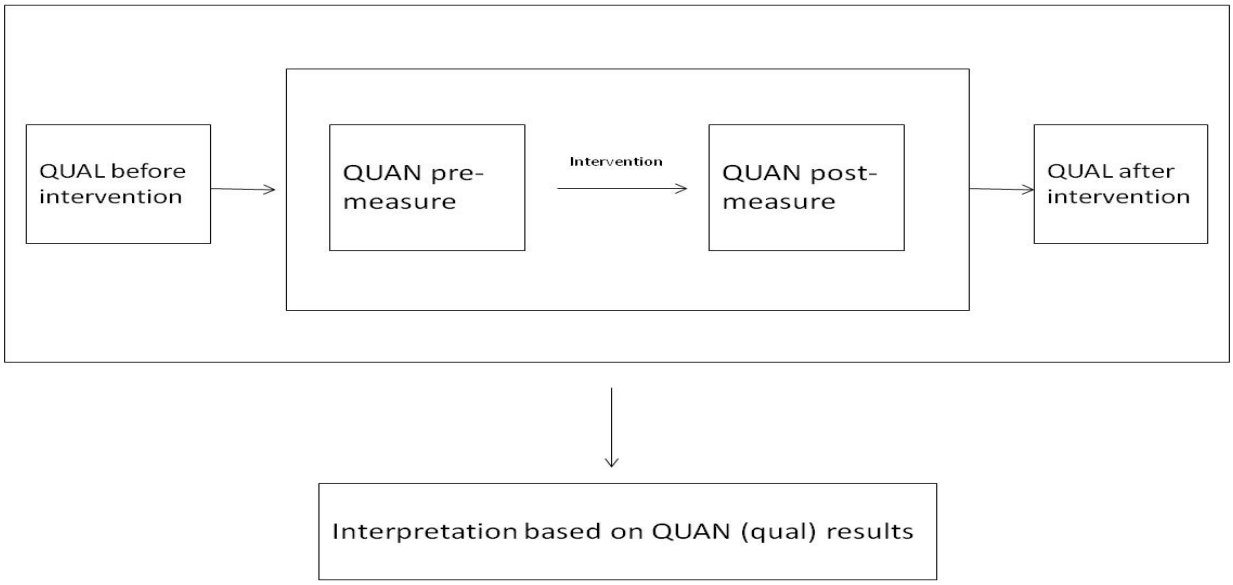

Figure 1 - Embedded design for this study (Creswell et al., 2003)

The current use of embedded mixed methods provides qualitative investigation to quantitative evaluation. The qualitative exploration:

- Considers a focus for an EI intervention programme incorporating practitioners perspectives and context-specific needs analysis
- Investigates the experiences of the participants in evidence-based intervention processes, encapsulating their understanding in their own words to refine future interventions accordingly
- Explores qualitative understanding of the intervention procedure which cannot be obtained through rating scales
- Counteracts the limitations of the quantitative design (Palinkas et al. 2011)

Creswell (2003) stated that clarity must be provided when mixed method designs are used. Here are some of the reasons why it was used in this research:

- Qualitative components are used to provide explanation, enrichment, description and elucidation of the findings that have been acquired from the quantitative methods (Green et al., 2010)
- Comprehensiveness: a more complete account of the field of study may be brought about by the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Bryman, 2006);
- Efficacy- studies have shown that using positivist and constructivist approaches will result in data providing a more complete understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, thus making it more useful and pertinent to practitioners in the area of interest (Bryman, 2006; Gulliford, 2015).

To summarise, the methods used and overall research design are influenced by the aims of the research, the literature review of the topic, the necessity to make an evidence-base for

intervention programmes and the practical nature of carrying out 'real world' research as opposed to a laboratory experiment.

3.3. The School Context

A major stakeholder in the research was the school in which the research was conducted. The main objective was to recruit participants in the specified age range in the literature review (11 years old, who recently experienced the transition from primary to secondary school) to examine the effectiveness of an EI intervention programme. As explained previously, more research needs to be conducted to determine if EI support can lead to developing EI in adolescents as well as academic achievement. This could be particularly important to Local Educational Authorities as research has suggested that numerous secondary school pupils face physical, emotional and behavioural challenges post-transitions to key stages three or four, as a result of the social and academic demands placed on them (see literature review). The researcher contacted the secondary school which he attended during his secondary education and attained the approval and support of the Head Teacher and Head of Year 7. The school is a 'smaller than average' state-funded secondary school with almost 700 pupils, aged 11-16 years (OFSTED, 2014) and is located in a county town in the South East of England. The school has a high proportion of pupils who are known to be eligible for free school meals and for whom the school receives additional funding known as pupil premium, in addition to an above average proportion of disabled pupils and those with special educational needs (OFSTED, 2014). Most pupils are from a White British background, and the proportion of pupils who speak English as an additional language (4.5%) is well below the national average (16.2%) (OFSTED, 2014).

During initial discussion with the Head Teacher, it became apparent that a number of pupils within the school were experiencing behavioural and emotional difficulties and the school had various lesson/classes available to deal with different learning difficulties, but no programmes to deal with social and emotional problems. Subsequently, the school decided to implement the intervention programme with the aim of benefitting their New Year 7 pupils. The Head of Year 7 (also the lead transition teacher) was the main contact throughout the research process. Consultation between the Head Teacher and the researcher ensured that the school administration and management team were aware of

the developments made by the research. The school, as well as the parents, will be updated on the results of this research using written evaluations, explaining any success of the intervention and any recommendations provided by the study.

3.4. The Researcher

Reflexivity is fundamental when conducting mixed methods and qualitative research. Arguments have been made that a researchers' personal and professional background will impact on the area and topic under investigation, the methodological standpoint, the most appropriate type of data/findings and the conclusions made (Malterud, 2001).

The researcher is a middle class Asian British male, early career researcher, aged in his late-twenties. The researcher has previous professional experience of teaching young pupils and participating in interventions with pupils experiencing behavioural and wellbeing issues. This could have affected the expectations of what the EI intervention should include. In addition, the researcher has had a personal interest in developing effective support programmes to address emotional well-being as well as mental health, and this should be taken into consideration throughout the research process as it may bias the inferences and recommendations made from the findings.

In all research, the researcher has a degree of involvement that could jeopardise the validity of the conclusions drawn from the study. In most experimental research, the researcher takes a role in collecting data, analysing, drawing conclusions, and ascertaining implications. When the analysis is quantitative, the threats are diminished, as the researcher deals with data that are already there and analyses them using a set formula. However, even this type of method has its own threats; there are other factors we cannot control. It is advisable, in quasi-experimental designs, that the person or team who carries out the assessment is different from the person or team who carries out the experimental intervention. In this case, the researcher carried out both the pre- and post-assessment; as such a sharing arrangement was not accessible to the researcher. The researcher collected survey responses for the quantitative phase and conducted semi-structured interviews, observations and focus groups for the qualitative phase, in addition to delivering the

intervention programme. Bias is inevitable in such a case, but numerous steps were taken to maintain the integrity and reduce bias (See Study 2).

3.5. Ethical Considerations

The objective of the research was to conduct ethically sound procedures to protect the participants following the framework of the British Education Research Association (BERA). Middlesex University Education Ethics Committee reviewed the application for each study as appropriately meeting the university's ethical requirements throughout the research. Some of the ethical considerations made throughout the research are described below.

Consent

Informed consent ascertains that participants have adequate *"understanding of the nature, purpose, and any potential risks of their participation in the research to allow them to make an informed decision about their capabilities"* (BERA, 2009). The pupils involved in the research were instructed of the research through an assembly held by the Head of Year and the researcher a week before the start of the intervention. They were informed about the aims and objectives of the study, were notified that their participation was voluntary and would be anonymised and that they would be able to withdraw at any stage of the research without any repercussions. The assembly concluded with a Q&A session for any of the participants who had any queries for the researcher.

The gatekeepers of the participants (the school) had agreed and consented to research before the first study (Study 1). Parents/carers of the children were informed about the research through a participant information sheet. They had the opportunity to withdraw their child from any study their child may have been involved in through a withdrawal of consent form or by informing the researcher or teachers in the school in whichever way they preferred (email, phone, face to face). The opt-out procedure was used as this was the practice of the school as they felt this intervention was in accordance to their 'in-house'

school training programmes and the intervention activities and pre- and post-measures were doubling for the school as teaching activities. Nevertheless, the researcher also provided after-school opportunities for the parents/carers of the participants to meet the researcher, if anyone had any questions or queries regarding the study. No parents/carers met with the researcher, and no pupils were withdrawn from participating in the research.

Confidentiality

The BERA code highlights, "*Participants in psychological research have a right to expect that information they provide will be treated confidentially and, if published, will not be identifiable as theirs"* (BERA, 2010). This research made sure that the participants' identity was not revealed by not using any names or any identifying information that could be associated with them (Cohen & Smerdon, 2009). Consequently, this meant that names of schools, as well as individuals, were not mentioned. The research employed coded questionnaires which could be linked to a numerical class list to evade participants writing their names on any measures. During the qualitative data collection, no names were mentioned, and pseudonyms were used during the data analysis and write up.

To fully ensure research participants are protected, it is vital to recognise any possible physical or psychological injury, harm or anxiety that could occur as a result of participating in the research (BERA, 2009). In this research there was a likelihood of discussion of personal topics, recalling personal memories and heavy emotional involvement. Due to this, the head teacher prompted the pupils to seek pastoral support (that was already offered by the school) if required. In addition, the school had in place their own safeguarding measures, and child protection policies in case a pupil disclosed any sensitive information related to safeguarding or child protection issues.

Debriefing

The BERA code of debriefing research participants denotes researchers should debrief research participants at the end of their participation with the intent of informing them of the outcomes and nature of the research (BERA, 2009). Throughout this research, the researcher debriefed participants by explaining the aims of the research, the expected

outcomes, and the potential implications. A more detailed evaluation will be presented to the participants and the school at large upon completion and submission of the thesis.

Data storage and protection

Data was securely stored in a password protected digital files on the Middlesex University N drive. All data were also stored on a secure; password protected memory stick. The password was stored in a locked filing cabinet at the university and changed every six months. Survey responses, digital audio files, audio transcripts, pupil record details (such as attendance and demographic information) and research findings were coded to maintain participant anonymity. No identifiable data was printed in hard copy form and the hard copies of non-identifying, anonymised data were stored within a locked filing cabinet. Data were stored and backed up within existing university protocols for managing data within the confines of the Data Protection Act.

3.6. Summary of the Methodology

Real world and general issues of methodology have been discussed in the methodology chapter highlighting the importance of epistemological and methodological approaches for the research design. The chapter justified the mixed methods approach used in the current research, alluding to the shift of focus from the recurrent positivist/constructivist dichotomy. Nevertheless, there was an emphasis on the positivist approach in the research design to authenticate the causal findings concerning the effectiveness of an EI intervention. The research design utilised in the thesis has been detailed in the methodology chapter in addition to a quasi-experiment which involved EI and academic attainment as outcome measures. The qualitative strand consisted of semi-structured interviews, observations and focus groups that investigated the role of EI in school and experiences of participants in the intervention respectively. Issues of sampling and research procedure together with the ecological validity and reliability can be found in each study.

Chapter 4 - Study 1 – A school's perspective on secondary school transition and transitional support

4.1. Introduction and research aims/questions of Study 1:

This study aimed to investigate the school perspective on emotional intelligence (EI) in regards to pupils' transition phase of schooling from primary to secondary school and subsequently identify the most effective construct of EI in which to focus on for the intervention programme (Study 2). The literature review identified the need for further research on intervention programmes, which have previously focused primarily on whole school approaches and inaccurate EI constructs that have led to inconsistent findings. Moreover, intervention programmes have failed to involve practitioners in the research which has therefore led to failure and misalignment to explore links between educational research and practice. Research has found that there were clear issues separating research and practice in education (Broekkamp & Van Hout-Wolters, 2007). The misalignment centres on the perceptions that research can produce inconclusive results and often the results of research are not easily applicable or identifiable in the classroom. In light of this, it is proposed that greater communication and cooperation is necessary between researchers and practitioners (Vanderlinde & Van Braak, 2010). A shift is required from the dissemination of results published in academic journals which may not filter through to the school context to one in which there is a dynamic relationship between researcher and practitioner where each is informing the others' work.

There is also a lack of knowledge about the views of practitioners on the issue of EI. Teachers spend a significant amount of time in pupils' lives and play a key role on promoting social and emotional appropriateness (Zionts et al, 2004), and so this research aims to capture some of their understanding. This study aims to expand the focus of EI programmes by utilising qualitative data before the implementation of the intervention and being heavily context specific. By characterising the context, it was believed that the intervention would have an enhanced and long-lasting effect on the pupils. Thus, this research is illuminative in its nature and has the potential to serve as a platform for further research. Data on the most effective construct of EI in terms of the consequential intervention was primarily generated through interviews with teachers and observations of Year 7 lessons. This allowed the researcher to cross-validate data on important aspects of EI and develop an

intervention programme accordingly. The mix methods approach, combined with a range of data sources, allowed the full complexity of a central EI construct to be explored and examined from different perspectives (Nightingale & Rossman, 2004). In addition, as no one method is fully comprehensive, the strengths of one compensated for the inherent weaknesses of another and also improved the credibility of the findings through cross-validation (Patton, 2005; Yin, 2009).

RQ 1: What is the most effective aspect(s) of EI according to this research's school perspective in which to focus an intervention to increase pupils' EI skills and abilities and improve academic performance?

4.2. Study 1a

4.2.1. Method: Semi-structured interviews with open questions

Semi-structured interviews were used in this study as they allow for open questioning that helps in gathering extensive details of a phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998). Similar to focus groups, they allow for interaction between the interviewer and interviewee and allow for clarification of the responses from the participants. This provides an opportunity to carefully examine how participants structure responses, in addition to exploring personal reactions to the topic through open-ended questions. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews allow for further investigation into discrepancies and contradictions provided in the answers and provide a greater structure than focus groups. For such reasons, it was considered more suitable than focus groups, especially during the phase when a direct, clear focus for the intervention was sought. Moreover, Stewart et al., (2007) state that group discussions can be affected by various factors in different degrees; how the participants are feeling on the day, relationships between the participants in the group, group relationship with the researcher, an overbearing participant or even polarisation to group norms.

Even though semi-structured interviews provide flexibility, promote sensitivity to issues, and are relatively easy to analyse (Learning Skills Council, 2004), it is worth noting that this flexibility may lessen reliability of the findings. In this study, the responses gathered could have been influenced by 'researcher effects' as a positive relationship existed between the teachers and the researcher. An alternative body could have been used to conduct the

interviews to control for this, but this was not an available resource for a self-funded research student. In addition, the researcher had knowledge and understanding of the topics that needed to be examined and discussed as moreover, "*being there is best"* (Krueger & Casey, 2000 p. 247).

Key personnel involved in the transition phase of schooling were able to provide information about events and behaviours of young children, and how they as practitioners make sense of pupils' EI needs and experiences during the transition. This further validated the use of this approach as it presented the opportunity to gather in-depth meaning from the practitioners' perspective which is missing from the literature in this field and would have been impossible to observe due to the limited time available on site (Patton, 2002). Interviews with six participants consisting of tutors, curriculum designers and the Head of Year offered insights into various attitudes and behavioural dispositions of the pupils during their first year of secondary school, thus, hopefully enabling the understanding of EI and a providing a clearer focus for the intervention programme. In addition, the triangulation of the interview data with that generated through observations (Study 1b) enabled the development of a consensual model for the initiative.

4.2.2. Design of interview schedule

Robson (2002) argues that interviews of less than a half an hour rarely produce the required information; however, staff members have multiple demands on their time and were not usually available for this length of time. It was, therefore, necessary to prepare interview schedules carefully, with the aim of obtaining as much salient information as possible. Although this may have been an argument for more structured interviews, it was felt that it was more important to allow for the possibility of unanticipated information. Schedules (see Appendix 1) were designed to include questions to elicit different types of answers. These included questions on teaching experience and background where relevant, knowledge of EI, and suggestions of how to best support the pupils during the transition. Interviews generally started with personal questions that were easy to answer to put interviewees at ease, with questions requiring opinions coming later (Patton, 2002). Questions mostly concerned behaviour of pupils in the current Year 7, although the teachers were also asked about EI constructs that would benefit future pupils during a similar transition phase; as far

as possible, questions remained singular, open-ended and without cues for answers (Patton, 2002; Robson, 2002). Although overly academic language was avoided to maintain clarity, there is always an element of ambiguity in words (Fontana & Frey, 2005) as well as an assumption by all involved that others understand what is meant. To mitigate against this, a member of staff at Middlesex University (external to the supervisory team) was asked to read the questions to get a lay perspective.

4.2.3. Procedure

Consent was gained for the research after the negotiations with the Head Teacher and the Head of Year 7. All six participants completed consent forms (See Appendix 2) before the semi-structured interviews which indicated the nature of the study and that their interviews were to be recorded for transcription. The interviews were conducted individually in a meeting room at the secondary school in the summer term. Each interview started with a brief description of the researcher's role and nature of the study and lasted between 15-30 minutes. All the audio recordings were then transcribed for them to be analysed (See Appendix 3 for an example of transcription).

All interviews followed the same four-stage format. The first, formal stage included preamble to the interview, which included an outline of the project and the aims of the interview. This was followed by small talk (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) which was intended to put the interviewee/s at ease and build a rapport. The main body of the interview included a brief description of the main constructs of EI followed on by the topics and questions outlined in the schedule as a guide, posed in whatever sequence was appropriate to maintain flexibility and allow for the natural flow of conversation. Finally, interviewees were asked if they had anything to add (Patton, 2002), if there was anything they thought had been omitted or whether they had any questions. Throughout the interviews, the focus was to gain the teachers' understanding of the pupils' transition experience and ways to best support the pupils, listen rather than talk (Robson, 2002) and express empathy and understanding where appropriate, but without offering any opinions or judgement (Patton, 2002). Interviews were recorded to make more efficient use of the limited time available, allowing the interviewer to listen rather than write and thus maintain the flow and

coherence of the conversation. In addition, verbatim responses reduced the chances of misunderstandings during analysis and allowed direct quotes as supporting evidence.

4.2.4. Qualitative Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse all the qualitative data in this research including the semi-structured interviews. This approach to analysis involves the identification, coding, and analysis of patterns within the data (Boyatzis, 1998). A thematic approach was taken to the analysis of the data, based on its broadest definition as *'a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data*' (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This approach is considered to be appropriate for a constructionist paradigm (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and suitable for analysing all types of qualitative data including that from interviews (Study 1a) and observations (Study 1b). A thematic approach may also usefully summarise large amounts of data such as those generated in this study (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton 2002). This may enable the answering of specific questions and facilitate the identification of cross-case similarities and differences (Braun & Clarke, 2006), such as the variability in behaviours across settings which were anticipated in this study. Unlike content analysis, which advises against placing data in more than one category (Cohen et al., 2009), thematic analysis allows data items to be categorised within multiple themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This was necessary for this study, where a specific data item, such as certain behaviours that incorporate two or more EI constructs, maybe relevant in various sections and its omission from either category would potentially negatively affect the interpretation of results. Finally, thematic analysis allows for contextual information to be taken into account (in accordance with Braun and Clarke's definition of a "contextualised" thematic analysis). Acknowledging factors arising from the context is particularly important for this research as it focuses on exploring the experiences of pupils educated within a secondary school context. This study followed the guidelines of thematic analysis as described by Braun and Clarke (2006). As noted above, the theoretical framework from Trait EI theory was used for analysis and interpretation of the data, and so the themes are driven by the theory and applied to the data.

The initial stage of analysis was familiarisation of the data; this was accomplished by verbatim transcription of the interviews and continuous reading of the interview data

(Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to Gillham (2005), full transcription includes noting down everything a researcher and a participant mentioned in the interview, incorporating suitable punctuation and a transparent indication of indistinct content. The next step comprised of coding and analysing the data. This phase involved working systematically through the transcript and creating preliminary codes. As such, the preliminary codes represented rudimentary elements of the raw data that could be evaluated in a meaningful way (Boyatzis, 1998).

The approach to coding was data driven as well as theory-driven. Indeed, throughout the coding process consideration was given to Trait EI theory whilst at the same time looking for different codes which may have been parallel to the theory or appeared outside of it. Codes that had similar meanings to each other were combined into potential themes and sub-themes with subsequent repetition of the coding procedure to ensure that all data were coded and grouped accordingly. The themes were further re-examined to ensure that they were coherent and logical and the interview transcripts were also revisited to ensure an accurate representation was provided by the analysis. Inter-rater reliability was calculated among the research team which included the main researcher and his supervisory team. The themes and explanations of the themes were reviewed by the research team to ensure that they accurately reflected the content derived from the interviews. The final step of the analysis included assembling the results into a written evaluation, deciding on the presentation of the results, selecting appropriate quotes to illustrate the themes and highlighting pertinent and relevant points.

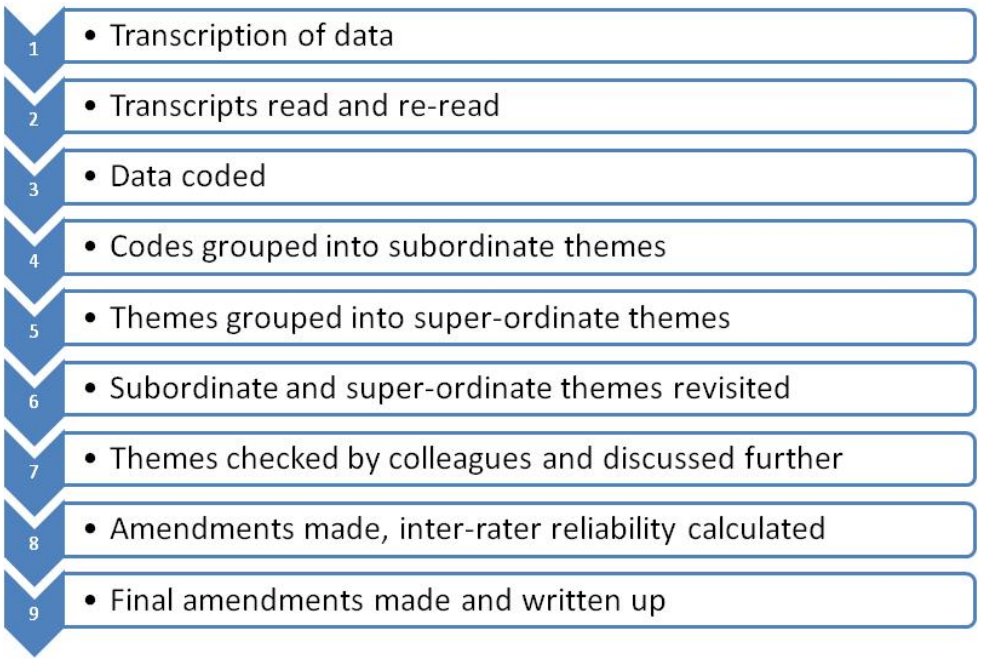

Figure 2: Thematic Analysis Flow Chart (Braun & Clark, 2006)

While Braun and Clarke (2006) cite that thematic analysis has previously been considered to be 'poorly demarcated and rarely acknowledged' as a robust method, if fidelity to the process is high, it can be a complex yet flexible method of analysis which can produce detailed in-depth results.

4.2.5. Findings from the interviews

The purpose of the interviews with the Year 7 teachers was to elicit the teachers' perceptions and understanding of EI in the classroom and gauge their viewpoints of the possible impact of an EI intervention programme on the children's behaviour and learning including the practical implications and feasibility of implementation. Analyses of the interviews produced two major themes ***"Challenges in the context"*** and "***Pupils' Emotional Intelligence."***

Challenges in the context:

The themes in this group were arrived at using deductive analysis and are closely related to the interview data. The themes led to understanding specific context difficulties that the

pupils faced whilst moving to secondary school surfacing from the talk of the teachers around challenges pupils face when they begin Year 7 and whilst describing the ideal pupils and the disruptive pupils.

Although the teachers were not specifically asked about the intricacies of the transition from primary school to secondary school, many of the teachers felt it was important to mention the effect that the novelty of moving to a new school had on the social and academic aspects of learning and the importance of dealing with this change in the "proper way".

Generally, when adolescents start secondary school, they may face many institutional adjustments. Pupils usually come from a smaller primary school setting where relationships with teachers and peers are closer, and the classroom settings are self-contained, whereas the new environment is much larger in size and more impersonal. The transition also includes a change in the school social system, from being the oldest pupils in the school to becoming the youngest age group.

Teacher 5 remarked on the severity of the switch:

"It's a huge change."

This was supported by Teacher 1 who eluded that:

"It can be difficult for them to actually you know cope with that change."

When questioned regarding the passage to succeed in secondary school Teacher 2 was quick to mention:

"They've got to get over the fact that they're at a new school."

This highlights that the novelty of moving to a school can be difficult to handle. However, even though the practitioners are aware of such changes and its impact on pupils, the disparity between the primary and secondary school contexts fluctuates according to the characteristics of that specific secondary school. Numerous secondary schools, including the school used in this study, have started to develop orientation programs aimed at parents and pupils, amend secondary school curriculum and modify pedagogic approaches to

improve the transition to secondary school and to meet and support pupils' developmental needs. Nevertheless, as mentioned in the literature review, such developments by the school continue to overlook the emotional and non-cognitive aspects of the transition.

The teacher's comments suggest however, that certain changes from primary to secondary school life may be causing particular concern:

"Another challenge is that all of a sudden they've got to be more independent in all things" (Teacher 4).

With one teacher highlighting the pressing concern of the change of the dynamics of the school:

"They've gone from being the oldest pupil in a smaller school to the youngest pupil in a much larger school…there's the issue" (Teacher 6).

Nevertheless, the familiarity versus the novelty predicament does seem to fade away. The adjustment becomes more related to personal characteristics of pupils, rather than to the transition path they followed in moving to their new school and thus, a teacher mentions:

"They're perfectly settled now they're sort of settled…….but it's all a bit like they're treading water" (Teacher 4)

The teachers' comment may indicate that pupils take time to adjust to their new environment, however, during such process uncertainty and uneasiness can manifest and impact the pupils in many different ways. For the majority of pupils, the transition contains some change from a generic environment, in terms of both the physical classroom environment and teacher background, into one with a more subject specialist focus. The teachers in this interview have highlighted the detrimental effects that the learning environment perceptions can have within this context. The majority of the teachers mentioned this in terms of the relative size of schools that had an impact on pupils' reactions to transition:

"*Going from a much smaller environment to this one is tough for some*" (Teacher 1)

"Suddenly being mixed generally in a much larger sixth form intake leads to so many anxieties" (Teacher 6)

Other teachers mapped the diverse classroom climate in secondary schools as a challenge that the pupils could not deal with during transition:

"In primary school, they're in one room all day generally, and when they come up here they're in five different rooms a day, and they don't know how to cope with it" (Teacher 3).

"They can walk around in science…but they can't walk around in maths. Things like that can confuse the kids which can lead to some many different behaviours" (Teacher 1)

Other perceptions the teachers made were regarding the diversity in interactions during the transition phase. Whilst the pupils have to deal with a change in the environment they also have to deal with a change in personnel at various levels especially at an academic level in secondary school. The teachers in this study discussed how having a number of different teachers posed a challenge to the pupils:

"Here they have specific specialist subject specialists…..It's difficult to deal with different teachers they meet" (Teacher 6).

"*Coming from one teacher and one group all the time to classes with different teachers....and coming across different characters and different personalities is challenging*" (Teacher 5)

Another school-level change which can negatively affect the developmental stage of the pupils linked to diversity in interactions is the breakdown of friendship groups, especially as early adolescence is a period when peer relationships are progressively important. One teacher describes:

"*Instead of dealing with a specific small group they suddenly have to deal with lots of different people*" (Teacher 4).

"Suddenly they've got a wider range of people to learn to trust" (Teacher 6)

"*Others find that the mixing with different people, making new friends….dealing with a larger number of pupils is difficult*" (Teacher 6)

Moreover, in schools, pupils construct their identities and status via their friendship groups and social interactions. Social hierarchies emerge in schools as some social networks gain greater social prominence and authority than others which can affect social experiences. For instance, popular "*cliques, wannabes, middle groups, and social isolates*" were identified by Adler and Adler (1998) in the social pyramid in primary schools. In this study, the teachers reported that determining rank amongst friendship groups was a common challenge for the pupils when it came to adjusting:

"*There's very much a top dog….there is a pecking order"* (Teacher 3)

While Teacher 2 stated, "*they're trying to look like the big one*."

Farmer et al., (2013) explained that the social processes which support such structures could reinforce behavioural problems in three interconnected ways. Firstly, as the pupils try to keep or improve their previous social status interpersonal clashes can occur; secondly, antisocial behaviour might be supported by peer networks; and thirdly, behavioural problems may be seen as a means to social success for some (Farmer et al., 2013).

In this study, teachers highlighted a variety of such problem behaviour:

"*Scrunching up paper and throwing bits of paper attention seeking….maybe a little bit of bragging 'oh I've got detention*'" (Teacher 2).

This seemed out of the norm for a teacher who mentioned:

"*They would never have done in the past….trying to look the coolest"* (Teacher 2).

A teacher also believed this could be negative in such a context during the transition:

"*They're just coming into the big friendships….a lot of pupils tend to be sheep rather than the leaders per say*" (Teacher 3).

Due to the significance of social hierarchies and social position for some adolescents, some pupils might see their academic achievement impede their social position leading to avoidance of academic activities and exertion of minimal effort when completing academic tasks. Many of the teachers, when asked specifically about academic challenges, found that this posed considerable difficulty for the pupils when they come to secondary school:

"T*hey are not comfortable enough yet to look silly, or they're still worried about getting it wrong"* (Teacher 2)

"They don't want to appear like they don't know so they don't put their hands up" (Teacher 5)

This may be due to the social quandary this may lead to as suggested by Teacher 4:

"Worried about what their mates say."

"They don't want to get it wrong and get the mickey taken out of them."

Nevertheless, regarding the social aspects of transition, practitioners are in agreement that a sense of belonging is of fundamental importance for pupils to effectively function and succeed in a learning environment (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Osterman, 2000) potentially directly influencing motivation. With that being said, a large amount of data from the teachers was related to belonging, friendships and social networks. A teacher explained how social groups change during the change from primary to secondary school:

"They used to have a bond in primary school and all of a sudden….want to go separate ways" (Teacher 5).

In addition to how the pupils were finding it difficult to adjust to such changes:

"T*hey're trying to hold on to primary school friendship groups"* (Teacher 5).

On the other hand, when they begin secondary school, some teachers noticed that for some children it is a challenge to find a sense of belonging:

"They haven't found that group or that order that they fit in to" (Teacher 3).

"It's a struggle….finding where they fit in" (Teacher 3).

Some teachers then allude to the adverse effect that this could have on the pupils socially. A teacher revealed that:

"*They try to get in with a difficult wrong group…or they try and change themselves to be like other people"* (Teacher 4).

"*The child doesn't feel part of a group or the rest of the group gang up on him"* (Teacher 4).

"*Then you have the next circle of friends and hangers-on who want to chip in"* (Teacher 1).

As the importance of friendships has just been alluded to, whilst conducting these interviews many of the teachers mentioned the negative aspects of friendships; that a critical problem the pupils have is that they cannot balance the social and the academic aspects of school. As the pupils are now able to move freely between classes in secondary school this can become distracting as Teacher 6 mentions:

"They might be in and out; they might come in hear a friend outside, and so they go back out again."

Another teacher stated how it was important not to mix the two (academic and social):

"Those situations that happen at break and lunch and not bring them into the classroom leave that outside" (Teacher 3).

A different teacher expressed the same concern and went on to explain why this leads to difficulties not only for the pupils but also the teachers:

"*It affects the whole kind of approach of what you're trying to do in a lesson in terms of learning and teaching*" (Teacher 1)

Pupils' Emotional Intelligence

The following theme emerged from the teachers' conceptualisation of emotional intelligence. The teacher's described emotional intelligence as a concept centred on the social-emotional aspects of learning and thus, associated it the 'whole-child' approach. Five out of the teachers perceived it as management of certain scenarios:

"*It's about how you react in different situations. How you can manage your emotions to actually better a situation or to change dynamics of something" (Teacher 2).*

Some went on to focus on the social aspects of EI and including relationship with others:

"*Being able to understand how other people are feeling and how well they (the pupils) are doing impacts on other people" (Teacher 4).*

During the interviews, the teachers' general understanding of EI was further reinforced by the researcher who introduced the definition of Trait EI along with a list of competencies that underlie the behaviours of teachers, pupils, and individuals. This provided a framework for social-emotional constructs in the school context for the teachers, and their understanding and experiences will be discussed with illuminative quotes generated from the interviews.

With the help of the definition and prompts, several of the teachers described concerns regarding pupils understanding of their experience. The teachers highlighted that the pupils during the transition phase were not aware of how particular emotions lead to particular behaviours:

"*I think with a lot of young children they don't have the strategy or the experience to be almost aware of how they're feeling and how things might then start to affect them"* (Teacher 1).

The Head of Year also made a clear statement about the benefits of self-awareness for pupils coming from Year 6, not only for the pupil themselves but also for the teaching staff:

"*If they are already self-aware of their emotions and what triggers adverse or outbursts it's easier for me to talk to them and to look out for them…..make staff aware of warning signs there may be potential for conflict or a disruption in a lesson".*

Some of the teachers in this research felt that lack of self-awareness in academic and social situations could affect the pupils' general performance in class and ultimately their achievement. One teacher explained how some lessons had been disrupted by pupils who lacked understanding of their social and academic conditions and subsequently had to be rebuked for their behaviour. The teacher believed that this damaged the pupils' short-term academic performance and could have been avoided:

"*If they had a little bit more awareness over their situations….have the awareness to leave those situations that happen at lunch or break and not bring them into the classroom……self-awareness they'd make a distinction what happens socially and what happens academically"* (Teacher 3).

For a small number of teachers, the pupils' apprehensiveness and tentativeness during the first few months of secondary school led to many social and academic missed opportunities, which the teachers believed hindered their smooth transition. Some teachers felt that the self-confidence construct for pupils could potentially influence all other constructs of EI and one teacher felt that it could benefit their global EI:

"*If children are quite confident in themselves or in their own kind of benefits and their own kind of vision in who they are and where they want to go well it kind of helps lead into these (constructs) other ones"* (Teacher 4).

Individuals who see themselves as competent can have positive self-concepts, whereas a lack of perceived competence can negatively affect self-concepts (House, 2000). Thus, a pupils' academic performance has been found to be closely related to their self-confidence and these competence levels. This was supported by the Year 7 teachers who felt that self-confidence could give the pupils more academic competency:

"*Low self-confidence affects pupils because they will look at work and put it to one side and think 'I can't do this' and actually you know if they've got the self-confidence to think they are going to give it a go and then they actually figure out they can do it so actually it's a really important part of pupils academic work"* (Teacher 4).

In the interview, whilst on the topic of self-confidence Teacher 2 went on to describe how self-confidence is also important socially:

"S*ocially if you've got the self-confidence to be yourself or be then you're going to progress socially. There are lots of pupils who quite often either don't have the confidence in themselves for some reason, and this leaves them to be isolated or trying to get in with a difficult wrong group of pupils, or they try and change themselves to be like other people because they don't have the confidence in themselves".*

The intervention in this study may then consider improving the pupils' self-confidence. This can be done by developing the use of self-praise and positive self-talk to influence and enhance the ability of optimistic thinking with the aim of facilitating positive behavioural outcomes. The teachers interviewed in this study also reiterated the importance of possibly including aspects of self-confidence in the intervention programme:

"I think things that develop self-confidence activities that will do that within small groups and small groups actually work on those kinds of things, given opportunity to do things they might not normally do and to succeed, therefore "I can succeed and that maybe I can succeed at something else" and developing that there in any programmes" (Teacher 1).

Furthermore, the social aspect of empathy was also mentioned by the teachers as an important construct of EI when discussing Year 7 pupil's capabilities. As previously mentioned, empathetic pupils have a higher likelihood of cooperating in class and subsequently demonstrating positive classroom-based behaviors and being more favoured by the teachers. Consequently, the pupils may get more attention and help from their teachers and peers and could be more engaged with school (Hubbard & Coie, 1994; Wentzel, 1998). This was supported by the teachers in this study who affirm:

"*I also think empathy is quite important from that point of view. I think it's very easy for them when they are empathetic they can come in and sit in this room and be able to empathise with each other where they are coming from and how to work together and how to work in a group and understand each other. That's really important, and sometimes they are a little bit lacking in that they can only see things from their own point of view"* (Teacher 4).

Another teacher described a disruptive pupil as someone who lacked empathy:

"*Disruptive would be someone who comes in and just takes all of your takes all of my focus or takes all the attention away from what we're doing. So if they've come in and they're talking, and they're loud, and they're calling across the classroom, they're shouting out, and they are really starting to affect the delivery of activities, or they start to distract other learners then that becomes disruptive" (Teacher 3).*

As such, it may be important to educate the pupils on how their actions and behaviour may affect their peers. It is not surprising that a variety of interventions have been designed with the purpose of increasing empathy and empathic responding. Accordingly, the teachers in this study were in favour of possibly including empathy training in the forthcoming intervention programme as one teacher alluded:

"It's for them to have a greater understanding of that every pupil is different, they are individuals and to have empathy for other peoples points of views or their situations and things that trigger lack of self-control or gives the lack of self-confidence. I think its empathy would be the biggest thing to work on to make them more aware of other pupils' needs and emotions and how best to deal with that" (Teacher 6).

Teachers also stated that many of the negative behavioural dispositions could have been avoided if the pupils had slightly better-developed self-control:

"*I think a lot of them particularly the Year 7's very quickly revert to the sort of reptilian brain and kind of fight or flight, Or that kind of response rather than being able to take a step back and analyze what's going on, it's very reactionary "he said this, she said this, he did this" bang instant response to it"* (Teacher 1).

During the interviews another teacher discussed common problems that pupils have throughout the transition phase from primary to secondary school and mentioned self-control:

"*There are a lot of situations that I see with year seven that could be avoided if they were maybe a little bit more if they had a little bit more control over their own situations. I'd say now "if this happens I'm just going to walk away" and then the situation would stop and they don't have that kind of self-control to be able to not retaliate or not answer back or to say or to just walk away and not get involved"* (Teacher 3).

"….The pupils who can't control the situation they're in, again will get into conflict and that will then affect their academic development" (Teacher 4).

As the lack of self-control has been linked to behavioural and impulse control problems as well as school underachievement (Baumeister, 2002, Tangney et al., 2004), it may be important to include aspects of self-control in the intervention. This could be done by exploring, challenging and developing pupils' mindsets for managing difficult social situations and problem-solving which can all be linked to self-awareness.

Even though resilience is not included in Trait EI framework, it has been included as a result of several remarks made by the teachers throughout the interviews. Teacher 1 suggested the importance of resilience in being successful:

"I think they are resilient to do well, they are willing to give things a try and have that confidence that if they make a mistake or they fail, they're ready to try again."

When describing his ideal Year 7 pupil during the transition, Teacher 4 mentioned the importance of resilience in the face of difficulties and the willingness to continue and learn from mistakes:

"I would say a pupil who's willing to make mistakes and is willing to learn from those mistakes. So a pupil who has the resilience to be able to say 'okay I have taken this Mrs you know given me this felt really good this is what I can do to improve, and this is what I can do to do that without even thinking 'I can't do it' then and pushing it aside or feeling quite hard done by because they've been given advice for progress. So somebody who's got resilience, somebody who is ready to make mistakes and learn from those mistakes and somebody who comes to the lesson with the intention of learning and enthusiasm for that learning. Someone who throws themselves in".

Even though children are born with a capacity of resiliency which might help them cope against certain risks, over time as threats multiply this supply of resiliency might begin to fail, leading to negative outcomes and increasing maladaptive behaviour. This was echoed by a Teacher 1 who commented:

"Pupils who are keen to try…take on new challenges and move on…if they don't have that they will exhibit displacement behaviour in some way, they will do other things so as not to do that. They might choose not to take part so they don't fail 'I don't take part I can't fail'".

As resilience is believed to be closely connected to the academic performance of the learners (Hanson & Austin, 2003; Reyes & Jason, 1993), increasing individuals' resilience has the potential to increase academic achievement. Therefore, it could be possible to improve academic achievement by enhancing resilience as the skills that surround resilient behaviour can be taught, learnt and also measured. This emphasis on developing resilience was alluded to by a teacher in this study:

"*Resilience is a big factor for a lot of pupils of all age groups lack and need to be sort of developed"* (Teacher 1).

Motivation was also a construct that teachers interviewed in this study also maintained the importance of as Teacher 1 states:

"The pupils who are motivated and are keen to try and do well they are obviously, you know, take on new challenges and move on."

When asked regarding the most important construct for pupils academically, Teacher 2 believed that it was motivation:

"Motivation I think; they've got to be motivated to be able to do it. They've got to have a reason for wanting to do it whether it's self-motivation or just the motivation that they have to do it. Yes, motivation I would go for. I am quite strongly on that".

Conversely, some teachers went on to explain how the lack of motivation could detriment the pupils:

"*If they don't have that they will exhibit displacement behaviour in some way they will do other things so as not to do that. They might choose not to take part so they don't fail "I don't take part I can't fail…. They may because your pushing on them then they're not making the progress they could make because there is that sort of you know lack of the desire to try and push"* (Teacher 1).

For that reason, it may be important to enhance motivational skills through the intervention programme.

4.3. Study 1b

4.3.1. Method: Observations

Observations were undertaken to generate data to develop detailed descriptions and widen understanding of school contexts. In addition, they provided vital real-time data (Yin, 2009) about behaviour and conduct between the pupils and revealed how EI is truly operating in schools (Mertens, 2014) in order to capture context-specific information to feed directly into the intervention (Study 2). Observation data also complemented and cross-validated

information from the teacher interviews (Study 1a) and incorporated observations on teacher-pupil interactions and challenging behaviours in the lessons.

John et al. (2014) argue that observations are an important method in research, considering that researchers theorise what he or she has observed or experienced. The qualitative method of observations in this study is also linked to the social constructivism paradigm, primarily concerned with the quality and texture of the pupils' classroom experience, rather than with the identification of cause-effect relationship. The outcomes in the observations were focused on exploring the pupils' EI in their *"own territory within naturally occurring settings where conditions continuously develop, and pupils interact with each other to give rise to a process of ongoing change"* (Willig, 2013, p27). This was an alternative approach to asking pupils directly about their EI needs (for a further rationale of not initially gathering pupils' perspectives see Study 3b). Even though observations are commonly considered to have strong ecological validity, as naturally occurring phenomenon are observed (Fossey et al., 2002), researcher bias can affect the observations, as it may prompt the researcher to only select or note information that supports their hypotheses. Research bias can be controlled through the use of observation schedules to some extent, and even though observation schedules can restrict the information that the researcher records, an observation schedule was deemed suitable as the researcher was able to control how rigid or flexible to have the observation schedule.

In this study, observations were necessary for identifying an area of focus for the intervention and were essential in determining whether the observations matched with teacher's perceptions of EI. As such, the researcher prepared notes on classroom activities; key language used in the classes; and general classroom behaviour and engagement. The researcher recorded the observation on an observational schedule (Appendix 4) and the researcher made attempts to reflect about the process (Robson, 2002). To ensure accuracy and standardisation of the findings, Petrides' Trait EI model was the framework used in observation. This may have restricted the observations to some extent as it may have been a limit imposed on the meaning. However, to maintain reliability, validity and continuity (from the interviews) the use of the framework seemed appropriate and furthermore, opportunities were given in the schedule to capture behaviour outside of the EI framework.

In dealing with a possible research bias, the researcher examined positive aspects of the class but also noted areas that needed improvement.

Researchers can adopt different roles in the observational fieldwork. As Merriam (1998) discusses, the roles include participant-as observer, complete observer, and observer-as-participant. The selection of the role depends on the problem to be explored, the participants' desire to be studied, as well as the researcher's prior knowledge of the context. The present study uses complete observer role, which makes use of detached observations. The researcher could not choose a more participant role because of the researchers' external status and the fact that members of staff did not want the researchers' participation in the lessons. Therefore, the concern of the researcher was to minimise intrusion on the lessons observed in a bid to cause as little inconvenience as possible to the teachers who agreed to their lessons being observed.

Observations are often regarded as time-consuming (Fossey et al., 2002). Nevertheless, in the present study, observations were conducted over two simultaneous full school days and aided triangulation of the teacher interviews to offer insight into context-specific information to feed directly into the intervention. Another major hindrance was that the use of a non-participant role failed to nurture strong relationships among the pupils in the class. Nevertheless, the purpose of the study was to capture rich and meaningful data in a natural school setting; capture the intricate interplay between pupils and their peers and pupils with their teachers; capture EI in motion and action (not just theory); and fundamentally find a focus for the EI intervention to best support pupils post-secondary school transition. The triangulation of the data gave vigour to the analysis and was kept manageable within the restraint of a doctoral programme.

4.3.2. Design of Observation Schedule and procedure

To capture natural teacher-pupil interactions, observations were conducted in the classrooms at the school. An open framework recording procedure was used whereby the researcher detailed classroom incidences in written form. A general observation protocol was also designed and adapted as necessary to collect data on as many areas of classroom activities as possible. This incorporated guidelines for note-taking during observations including detailed, low-inference, descriptions of the setting and its physical layout; factual

accounts of activities, events, and interactions related to Petrides' EI framework and verbatim recording of dialogue. Patton (2002) also recommended noting what did not happen, based on expectations and similar experiences and this was done where possible. Not only did the use of a recording schedule result in a flexible structure of data gathering but was also favoured over apparently more rigid methods, e.g. marking down behavioural categories or event sampling; the latter might lead to restricting the depiction of the classroom activity to one aspect of the classroom. The use of the same observation schedule by a single researcher while attending different lessons was advantageous to the study in terms of comparing one data set to another, but less so in terms of comparing data gathered by different observers in other studies.

Following ethical guidelines, the Head of Year 7 (who was the researchers' point of access to the school community) proposed that prior to the observations, the researcher circulate information about the project to the members of staff who were being observed. Staff gave their consent to be observed but did not allow for the observations to be recorded which may have impacted the inferences made from the study as it did not allow for verification of the observations. The teachers consequently informed their pupils about the researcher who would observe their lesson; however, the nature of the study was not fully disclosed to the pupils before the observations as it could have impacted on the pupils' behaviour. Nonetheless, a full debriefing was provided to the pupils after the observations. The Head of Year 7 arranged for seven lessons of Year 7 pupils in various subjects to be observed over a period of two days. The 50-minute lessons observed were Geography, Food Technology, Maths, Music, ICT, Physical Education and a Learn to Learn class. The observation schedule was piloted by the researcher on a range of online OFSTED secondary school videos to familiarise and prepare the researcher on the technique of observations. This not only prepared the researcher with the required observational skills but also allowed for any necessary amendments needed for the observation schedule. The observations in this study took place in a typical classroom setup and to lower the risk of potential observer effects; special arrangements were avoided apart from the fact that the researcher was present during the lesson. The researcher was placed in an empty seat at the side of the classroom and except for polite interactions did not engage with the participants.

Patton (2002) advised talking to participants after the event, to obtain their impressions and feelings and also to clarify any potential misunderstandings; however, as this was not possible with the pupils, it was carried out with the teachers. An informal discussion with the class teachers ensued after each observation and clarity, and the teachers offered confirmation of the observations. Notes were written up into a narrative account within twenty-four hours of the observation, and at this stage included impressions, interpretations and reflexive comments.

4.3.3. Findings from the Observations

The purpose of the observations of the Year 7 classes was to explore the pupils' engagement in the lesson, their interaction with peers and their teacher, and to explore their attention. The observations were also thematically analysed (see section 4.2.4) deductively to explore any noticeable behaviour's directly linked to the themes from the interviews (challenges in the context or the emotional intelligence constructs). During the analysis, specific examples were chosen to match the themes generated from the interviews.

The first example highlights the challenges of flexibility and diversity in interactions for the pupils when they interact with others they do not know.

The pupils had entered into their first food technology class. Some of the pupils knew each other from previous interactions whilst some of the pupils did not know anyone. There was a sense of excitement and nervousness in the atmosphere. They were clearly excited being in a new environment surrounded by new equipment such as stoves and cooking utensils; however, apprehensiveness seemed apparent as they sat at the desks surrounded by unknown peers. Across the room, four girls sat around a table in silence. The teacher set a task to "Get To Know your fellow pupils" whereby the pupils had to find out about the favourite food and drinks of people at their desk. The four girls had never met each before, and this was evident as they appeared uneasy around each other. Shoulders were tense, and no eye contact was being made as they busied themselves with playing with their hair and pens. This was observed throughout the lesson. The teacher tried to engage them together by firstly asking them the questions directly and then by prompting them to ask each other. The responses she received were short and in a low tone. On task activity was minimum, and

the observer recognised that they were the only group to not finish the tasks set by the teacher in each activity in the whole lesson.

The transition consists of meeting and working with new peers, and the inability to adapt and work collegially may impact pupils' educational experience as well as their attainment. Johnson et al., (2000) who studied peer acceptance and social adjustment found that first impressions have a lasting effect on peer acceptance so this may be a worrying implication for the pupil's social, psychological and academic adjustment particularly in the transitional Year 7.

Conversely, the researcher noticed pupils trying to retain old friendship groups, which coincided with comments made by the teachers:

In a PE lesson, the pupils were set a task to complete various activities of basketball shooting around the sports hall. Two friends who were paired together were not engaging in the activity (they could be seen giggling and laughing together). As the teacher tried to separate them and pair them up with another partner, they became reluctant. "I swear we'll work," one girl said, "I don't wanna work with anyone else." "Please Miss, Please!" they pleaded with their teacher not to separate them to keep hold of their friendship group even though this could have detrimental effects on their educational experience.

This illustrates the point the teachers made regarding friendships. However, this may be part of normal development as pupils seek stability in their social networks in a transition loaded with change and challenges. Nevertheless, as schools are not always able to group pupils with their friends, it may be necessary to allow the pupils time and space to explore new friendship groups and develop their interpersonal and intrapersonal skills together. This could be done in a structured and safe environment during the transition as, even though expanding friendship networks is beneficial, it could lead to innocuous behaviour as adolescents may try to establish status and rank amongst their classmates leading to adverse effects on their peers, as mentioned by the teachers in this study. This kind of behaviour was observed in this study during a girls' basketball (PE) lesson.

The pupils were set a task in pairs to dribble the basketball from one side of the sports hall to the other in a relay competition. As the first set of pupils began the race, one girl returned to

the start line before the others and started mimicking her peers who were still undertaking the drill. "Take that you losers," "Yes, I'm the best" she was heard shouting. As the remaining pupils returned back to the start line, the observer felt that many of the pupil's heads had dropped possibly due to embarrassment or the feeling of belittlement.

The researcher believes that the pupils witnessing such behaviour can become deflated and moreover may subdue their participation in lessons. Socially, this conduct may lead to peers becoming distant with people which may have a long-term negative impact towards their academic performance.

With regard to the theme of "**Pupils' Emotional Intelligence,**" there were cases in the observations in which teacher-pupil interaction impacted on the pupils' sense of self which is relevant to what the teachers in this study had previously mentioned.

During the observation of an ICT lesson, the pupils were set a task to replicate a front page news article that was modelled by the teacher. The teacher showed them how to formulate the tables and boxes on the electronic document, but the pupils had to come up with an original headline and story. As the pupils were carrying out the activity, a pupil was approached in a friendly manner for copying the example of the teacher and was asked to create an original title. This led to the pupil becoming instantaneously disheartened, shown by a loud groan, pursing of his lips and slumping into his chair with his hands on his cheeks. The teacher continued to probe by asking questions and giving suggestions to things the pupil maybe interested in and therefore may like to make a headline about, however, the pupil continued not to respond.

This suggests how pupil's maybe approached by teachers to evaluate and re-evaluate their progress, and thus it is key for the pupils to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses and understand contextual feelings. The response and recognition to this is imperative in having a successful educational experience. The researcher believes that the behaviour of the pupil was a physiological '*Flight or Fight*' reaction (Cannon, 1932), as the pupil may have identified the teachers' involvement as an attack or criticism and consequently withdrew. It might be helpful to pupils if they perceived such occurrences, not as acts of condemnation by the teacher but rather an attempt for development and improvement.

A similar *fight or flight* reaction was observed in a Math lesson:

During an activity, two girls were jovially talking and working simultaneously. It must be noted that the researcher felt that it was not with excessive noise or to the detriment of others as the remainder of the classmates were similarly working together and communicating in groups. Suddenly, a boy sat in front of the girls turned around and began yelling and shouting at them "Shut Up," "You're so stupid," "Your work is rubbish." He began attacking their papers whilst the girls seemed to nonchalantly not take any notice.

The researcher was left to question what this meant to the boy. Did he feel attacked? Prevented? Or even left out by the girls in some way? Thus, it is imperative for pupils to be aware of triggers that may affect them to behave in certain in certain situations

Zimmerman (2013) in his analysis or self-regulated learning found that pupils with poor self-awareness displayed such strained interactions with their teachers and peers and academically, did not have good working habits. Conversely, pupils with good self-awareness displayed positive attitudes towards their teachers and their school tasks and displayed consistent achievement. The intervention in this research could subsequently enhance the pupils' ability to identify, process and interpret one's own and others intentional states. A teacher interviewed also echoed such sentiments:

"I would hope by the end of it (the intervention) they would have, they would have improved their own self-awareness of other people's emotions but that they would understand that not everyone is wired up the same….. If we improve their empathy and their self-awareness they would be more able to (I don't know what the word is) compartmentalise each individual lesson actually move on" (Teacher 6).

Self-confidence was also observed in the Maths lesson:

The teacher had set a task for the class to be completed individually. During the feedback stage after the activity, she was asking the pupils to present their answers to the class. At a particularly difficult question, all the pupils became quiet. No one was offering the answers after numerous requests from the teacher, maybe due to hesitation and worry of being wrong as mentioned in the self-preservation section above. Finally, a pupil raised his hand and approached the board to present his attempt. "I'm not sure, but I'll try" he exclaimed

and proceeded to answer the question. To his surprise, he had answered the question correctly and was commended by his teacher and peers.

Cohen and Smerdon (2009) in their study of pupils with low EI abilities found that pupils also manifested performance anxiety in classroom activities whilst also hesitating to respond to requests in the classroom. During the observations in this study, this lack of self-confidence was seen during a PE lesson on basketball.

The pupils were spread out across a large sports hall and were given an activity to practice free throws in pairs. A petite, shy girl, clearly smaller than her peers, during the exercise, seemed wary of her size, and as a result was reluctant to throw the ball. As she stood underneath the basket, she seemed conscious of the fact that she could not throw the ball high enough to reach the hoop. Naturally, this affected her confidence, shown by her head dropping and shoulders being slumped, with no attempt to try to shoot but rather holding the ball close to her chest. When asked by her teacher to show her attempt she seemed very apprehensive to the point of embarrassment. She seemed to be cautiously looking over her shoulders to see if anyone of her peers were watching her, and sad that she could not carry out the task. The teacher numerously asked her to try, explaining various techniques that could enable her to succeed in the task but she refused all endeavour.

This lack of self-confidence may have hindered the pupils' progress during the PE lesson, and thus, it can be seen that a lack of self-confidence can have detrimental effects on academic performance. Correspondingly, during the observations, the researcher noticed how self-confidence could affect social functioning.

In the ICT lesson, it was observed that a pupil was sitting alone with slumped shoulders. He sat a few seats away from the nearest pupil and did not utter a word throughout the entire lesson (50 minutes). He rarely looked up from his desk with a neutral, emotionless facial expression and played with his pen or drew on his book. When other pupils or the teacher did try and interact with him, he merely responded with head gestures, shrugging of shoulders and facial expressions (for example, pursing of lips to show he did not know a response to a question) alluding to the point that he was very reserved with the people in his class.

The researcher also observed social functioning and empathetic instances mentioned by the teachers during the observations, in which some pupils seemed to disregard and show little awareness of others around them. The following example suggests that the lack of understanding of others people's feelings and opinions could affect peer relationships, and moreover, how peer acceptance can be affected in various ways by empathy:

In one lesson the teacher had set a task for the pupils to log in to their computer and open a word document. From the outset of the lesson, a flamboyant animated female pupil demanded the attention of the teacher. She was the first to ask for help and was clearly the loudest and most vocal in the classroom. During the introductory exercise of the lesson, she was unable to login to her computer and began shouting and sceaming for the teacher who was already helping other pupils.

Pupil: "Sir!….Sir! I can't do it! Come here now.

Teacher: "I'm coming give me a second" as he tried to help another pupil.

Pupil: "Sir!...But I need you now….Sir!.....Sir!", she bellowed as he tried to ignore her and continue to help the other pupil. "Sir!….."

Teacher:"Can you just hold on." This dialogue continued for a further minute. The other pupils were also being affected by being distracted from their work. Maybe due to the social hierarchy in the classroom, no pupil said anything to the girl, but she was getting many disapproving looks from her peers, and the pupils began whispering to each other about her. It clearly seemed distracting.

As the girl waited for the teacher to come over, she began distracting her colleague sitting next to her by hitting her keyboard and ultimately not allowing her to progress. Her colleague, who was visibly smaller and quieter than her, had begun brightly by logging in to her computer and accessing the necessary files but could not continue to complete the task. When the teacher finally helped her login and continue the task, she began thinking out loud to herself and telling her answers to the whole class, which was also clearly distracting her classmates noticed by the disapproving glances she was met with again.

Throughout the observation of Year 7 pupils, it was noticed by the observer that many of the pupils could not control their negative impulses. For example:

In the Maths lesson a simple task of correcting feedback with a green pen that was provided by the teacher, led to a pupil protesting as he did not like the green pen. The pupil threw the pen to the floor and slumped in his chair expressing his desire not to do the task due to the pen. Furthermore, during the end of the class, another pupil had noticed that some pupils from other classes had been dismissed from their lessons and had entered into the playground which could be seen through the window. This led the pupil to become extremely angry and combative. He began shouting "This isn't fair, why you (teacher) being so slow."

This instance shows the lack of self-control by pupils in inconsequential situations can lead to confrontational behaviour. Moreover, this could lead to potential disruption to the class and have detrimental academic effects for other peers as the teachers' attention would be diverted from the task at hand. If such instances occur, the teachers may be obliged to disciplinary action. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy to add here an instance when the researcher observed a pupil exercising positive self-control.

During a lesson, the pupils were asked to complete an exercise in pairs. Two girls were working studiously on the task. A pupil in front of them (who was working on his own) tried to turn around on his seat and tried to engage the girls in conversation. He asked about a topic off task, which occurred during the previous break time. One of the girls gave a short response "I didn't see it" and tried to continue with their work. The boy turned to his desk and started to work. The girls were clearly not impressed seen by the rolling of the eyes and shaking of their heads to each other. The boy once again turned back to them. He this time tried to converse regarding the work at hand.

Boy: What do you have for question 4?

Girl: We haven't done it yet.

Boy: Can I have a look at your answers?.....The girls did not answer and continued to work together. "Oi, let me see what you have," he snarled. The girls patiently tried to continue with their work. Now the boy had had enough of being ignored and began to physically disrupt their work. He started hitting their pen with his pen as they wrote and drawing on

their paper. The girls did not respond to the provocation but merely raised their hand to gain the attention of the teacher. The boy did not heed their warning of getting the teacher and continued to pester them. The girls waited patiently until the teacher came over and relocated the boy to the other side of the classroom.

This example suggests how the girls maintained their self-control and did not retaliate to the boys pestering. They tried to sustain academic focus and refrained from an impulsive reaction. This example is similar to the findings of Tsukayama et al., (2013) who studied middle school children and reported verbatim examples of everyday self-control successes and failures. The successes mentioned in their study included "being patient with others" and "seeking help in times of adversity" as can be seen in the above observation.

The next example illustrates how pupils who possibly lack resilience may hastily relinquish tasks which appear to be overly difficult which will undoubtedly affect their academic performance:

The class was set a task that a pupil could not complete. The task that was set was slightly linked to the previous day's work, however, the said pupil was absent the day before, and therefore he automatically felt that he could not complete the task. The teacher came and sat with him for the duration of the task trying to explain that at the beginning of the lesson they had revised yesterday's information and that he had been made 'caught up' with the information. He refused to acknowledge what the teacher was saying and as the teacher began to go through the exercises together with him, he merely resigned the task and waited for the answers from his teacher. The teacher noticed the lack of effort and resilience to the task and subsequently left the pupil.

Given the recognition that some young people will find the transition especially difficult particularly with regards to the strains, changes, and adjustment it involves, the consideration of resilience within the context of transition and moreover an intervention programme is thought to be valid. Support initiatives could allow pupils to recognise the importance of challenges and failures, as an opportunity for growth and equip the pupils with strategies to deal with for example constructive feedback and poor grades. Furthermore, during the observations it was noticed that in the Learn to Learn lesson some

of the pupils only studied and showed on-task behaviour and when probed by their teacher or teaching assistant respectively:

During a task to devise innovative ways to deal with stress, a group of three male pupils completed the task with the help of the teaching assistant. They seemed engaged and held productive dialogue related to the task, however, as soon as the teaching assistant focused on another group, they became distracted and boisterous leading to play fighting and drawing on each other's work. This relates back to Taylor's findings that motivated pupils are autonomous in their learning. Furthermore, the same group during a later activity of grammar work felt disinterested in the task and refused to continue. "I hate grammar" one pupil was heard saying, as all three of the boys slumped in their chairs and put their heads in their hand. They refused to carry out the task, and this caused much of the teacher's monitoring time to be spent on trying to get them on task. This clearly shows lack of motivation and how a lack of motivation can disrupt learning. The teacher's attention became diverted, and she could not utilise her skills to benefit the class as a whole.

Moreover, lack of motivation and boredom with work set by teachers was a noticeable characteristic of academically able underachievers (Jeavons, 2000). Boredom can also lead to extremely short periods of time actually spent on the task. It was seen during Food Technology lesson that boredom and a lack of motivation led to disengagement from the lesson:

In their first ever food technology class a table of four girls who had previously never met sat together for the first time. The lesson was an introductory lesson as the teacher explained the rules and the format of how the lesson would be run. The pace of the lesson was relatively slow with a lot of teacher centred learning. The girls could be seen sketching and inattentively looking out of the windows. When questioned for feedback to simple questions such as "what kind of food do you like?" none of the girls could provide any response, as they perhaps were not listening or paying attention, and merely shrugged their shoulders.

This suggests how a lack of motivation can hinder academic performance as vital information could be neglected throughout the course of the semester. Thus, it may be in the best interest of the school and practitioners alike to try and develop intrinsic motivation in pupils from the forefront of the transition to secondary school. Nonetheless, the onus

could also be shifted to the teachers to try and diversify their teaching practices and foster an environment to try and keep the pupils more engaged.

4.4. Discussion of Findings from Study 1

This study focused on gaining a school perspective of pupils' transition to secondary school and the role of EI within the secondary school context. The main aim of the study was "What is the most effective aspect(s) of EI according to this research's school perspective in which to focus an intervention to increase pupils' EI skills and abilities and improve academic performance?" Six semi-structured teacher interviews were conducted, and seven classroom observations were undertaken.

Almost all the teachers interviewed mentioned the difficulties pupils had in adapting to the relatively larger school size, the numerous institutional differences between primary and secondary school and the changing teacher-pupil relationships. This was observed and triangulated by the observations where pupils would be seen having difficulty in balancing and understanding the different rules and techniques of one class teacher to another which the teachers mentioned could be seen to have implications for the teaching and learning. Even though some previous studies have found that the difficulties of transition can fade over the year (Anderson et al., 2000; Rice et al., 2011; Stradling & Macneil, 2000), transition periods have been suggested as potentially useful points to introduce intervention programs (Vitaro & Tremblay, 2008).

Most of the teachers in this study mentioned various challenges Year 7 pupils faced, however, the disruption of peer groups were thought to be a significant factor in how quickly pupils seemed to settle and adapt to secondary school. Relationships with peers are of critical importance during the adolescent developmental period (Blatchford, 2006; Cantin & Boivin, 2004; Pritchard & Woollard, 2013), but the teachers pointed out that the pupils had particular difficulty in establishing new friendships, determining ranks amongst friendship groups and acquiring a sense of belonging. The notion of belonging was found throughout the qualitative aspects of this research and alludes to the feeling of being part of a group and/or school (Humphrey & Lewis, 2008). Teachers explained how pupils find it difficult to fit in and adjust to new social environments and indicated how it could have adverse social effects,

"*They try to get in with a difficult wrong group…or they try and change themselves to be like other people"* (Teacher 4).

To help pupils adapt and fit into the new secondary school environment, most schools have existing transition activities in place which include pupils visiting their new secondary school before they officially arrive, in addition to Head of Year 7 and certain subject tutors visiting the primary school to meet and give information to pupils before they transition. However, this support is not (or only briefly) extended post-transition. Teachers and the school must allow the pupils an extended period to settle into their new environment post-transition with studies consistently revealing that pupils who experience a sense of belonging in educational environments are more motivated, more engaged in school and classroom activities, and more dedicated to school (Osterman, 2000). The idea of an extended post-transition phase could also help the pupils in enhancing their social skills to develop their social networks. The development of a social support system in the early periods of the transition could have a stress-buffering effect (Sirsch, 2003), and it is likely that a well-established social network and the related positive support in coping with situations could lead to a less negative perception of events and improve academic engagement.

The notion of belonging and identity has been linked to self-awareness and pupils understanding their experiences (Leary & Tangney, 2011) and was also a common factor throughout the interviews and observations. The teachers described how they felt the pupils were unaware of how particular emotions lead to particular behaviours and how some lessons had been disrupted by pupils who lacked understanding of their social and academic conditions. This is another aspect which is lacking in the existing transitional support. Some pupils are being exposed to opportunities to enhance their social skills during and post-primary transition with various structured extracurricular activities such as participation in sports days and breakfast clubs (Eccles et al., 2003; Gilman et al., 2004). However, such extracurricular activities are not accessible for all pupils (particularly economically disadvantaged pupils (Gilman et al., 2004) and moreover, for those pupils that are attending, such extracurricular activities are not preparing pupils to understand, separate and regulate between the social and emotional aspects of schooling. This is consistent with research conducted by Zajacova et al., (2005), which examined the relationship of self-awareness and academic success in college. Some of the teachers in

their research felt that lack of self-awareness in academic and social situations affected the students' general performance in class and ultimately their achievement. This was supported to some extent in this study when observations of the classrooms highlighted the negative effects of pupils not being aware of their strengths and weaknesses and overall understanding of contextual feelings. This could be alleviated by making pupils aware and giving them an understanding of the different contextual situations during the transitional support and equipping them with the correct skills to be able to regulate their emotions and moreover their behaviour.

As the significance of peer relationships was mentioned previously, the teachers also commented on the challenges the pupils faced with the new teacher-pupil relationships. These aspects of pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher relationships can be associated with the social aspect of empathy. Developing the ability of empathy may play an important role in pupils' school success. Pupils who are relatively more pro-social and empathic are likely to cooperate in class and exhibit appropriate classroom behaviours and may be well liked by teachers. Pupils with well-developed empathic skills may also develop closer relationships with teachers, and as a result, earn more instruction time from teachers. Nevertheless, it has also been argued that teachers must also enhance their own empathetic skills towards their pupils – to understand pupils' perspectives and to sustain positive relationships with pupils when they misbehave, which has also shown to improve teacher-pupil relationships and discipline outcomes (Okonofua et al., 2016).

This could be an alternative viewpoint, which is outside the scope of this thesis, of shifting the onus onto teachers in developing a more emotionally intelligent classroom and environment. As it could be beneficial for teachers and practitioners to be trained in EI and develop empathy skills, educational practitioners could also become more research informed. This could enable practitioners to become engaged in a structured process of learning to help them make clear links between their individual assumptions and research knowledge (Katz & Dack, 2014). This practice may assist schools and practitioners in creating a better understanding of pertinent issues and challenges: in the case of this thesis, adolescent's EI and transitional support. Consequently, the process of becoming research informed could result in the creation of new practices and policies developed through research and aimed at dealing with specific matters of teaching and learning. As schools use

these strategies in various situations and contexts, they could develop their expertise in its application and start to recognise how, where and why to be most effective and potentially positively impact and enhance the educational environment for the betterment of the pupils (Brown, 2017; Flyvbjerg, 2001). As discussed previously, a limitation of previous EI intervention programmes has been the lack of communication and cooperation between researchers and practitioners (Vanderlinde & Van Braak, 2010) and the "one size fits all" learning programmes. This study has tried to address by gaining the schools' perspective on secondary school transition and transitional support in a bid to personalise and develop a context-specific EI intervention programme.

To summarise, the interviews and observations carried out in this study found that pupils had difficulty in understanding their experiences and seemed unaware how particular emotions led to particular behaviour. Pupils who are able to deal with myriad of circumstances positively enjoyed a healthier educational experience and attainment (Parker et al, 2009; Zeedyk et al, 2003; Zajacova et al., 2005). The observations triangulated the findings from the teacher interviews in terms of the challenges the pupils faced with regards to understanding their own behaviours and the effect it may have on others; as well as pupils having difficulty in understanding the educational context in terms of their teachers and peers. Based on the pupils' classroom behaviours in which the behaviour of pupils were relatively similar throughout each observation but in different iterations, it appeared to the researcher that the Year 7 pupils responded to feeling valued by their peers and teachers, whilst simultaneously struggling to handle conflicting situations and challenging emotions.

The literature has supported the notion of the difficulty of secondary school transition over several decades, yet this study has highlighted that the pupils continue to face similar difficulties as mentioned in the literature which brings the current transitional support into question and indicates a lack of development over the years. This study aimed to understand this particular school context through teachers' perceptions and observed classroom interactions to develop a personalised approach that may support pupils who had experienced the transition. This study suggests that there seemed to be a common theme around the pupils wanting to be heard and seen whilst also feeling good about themselves, even at the expense of others. Consequently, the findings from Study 1 provided an insight into the daily occurrences of pupils in a natural school setting, provided a rationale for an

intervention and also an insight into the type of skills that may benefit the pupils in this school context. From the perspective of the teachers and the observation if was felt that the support should be centred on enhancing **self-awareness**; and as school is a social institute – **empathy**, in order to develop the pupils' emotional intelligence skills along with their academic performance.

4.5. Strengths, Limitations, and Implications for Future Research

Semi-structured Interviews

The semi-structured nature of the interviews were beneficial in some ways in that it allowed the interviews to be led by key questions, yet, there was flexibility for follow-up questions. The teacher interviews provided rich qualitative data which were particularly useful in terms of finding a focus for the intervention and the teachers seemed to be open and honest with regards to the role of emotional intelligence in the classrooms. Nevertheless, the teachers may have been affected by participant effects (Cohen et al., 2007) and the positive and existing relationship the researcher had with his ex-teachers. This could have influenced the teachers' responses during the interviews as the teachers may have wanted to 'help' the researcher by telling him what they think he wanted to hear (Sparling et al., 2011). This could subsequently bring into question the validity and reliability of the inferences made. It may have been beneficial to include more teachers in the interviews and conduct interviews with participants who did not have previous relationship with the researcher. This could have been done in a different school; however, the EI context specificity would not have been gauged. The limitation of this one school study threatens the internal and external validity of the study, and limits the interpretations of the outcomes of the results but produces a rich understanding of focused work within schools.

Observations

While the observations provided useful information, they could have benefitted from being more structured, for example, specifically observing the classes of the teachers that were involved in the interviews. This would have triangulated the data and verified the teachers' perceptions; however, as the aim of the study was to investigate an overreaching context of Year 7 classrooms, the researcher felt that it was more beneficial and less-confined for the study to observe classes that did not include the classes of the teachers from the interviews.

Moreover, observations could have been strengthened by an independent observer as observational data are susceptible to researcher bias (Patton, 2002). Nonetheless, while an independent observer may have been able to offer information of various behaviours and emotional aspects of the pupils from a different perspective, the individual observer may not have been able to make references to attitudinal features, and the observation would still be considered subjective. A further recommendation for the observations could be to specifically observe a selected group of pupils over a period of weeks during the transition. This would have made the findings more robust and gained a more detailed ethnographic perspective of the pupils' transition, however, this would have impeded the possible generalisations of the findings to the whole cohort of Year 7 pupils in this study, and subsequently impacted the intervention in Study 2.

Some further limitations of the study were the time constraints, and sample size put on the study due to the capacity of a single doctoral student. This prevented the researcher from using a cluster of schools in the borough to understand the different perceptions and contexts of EI in various schools and utilise a larger number of transitioning pupils. Although this would have been desirable, it was not feasible. Thus, a recommendation for future research would be to use a larger number of teachers to interview and Year 7 observations drawn from a range of schools, which the researcher believes could show how each individual school has different needs and requirements respectively. This would give a more comprehensive picture of the issues to developing pupils' social and emotional abilities to young people attending schools in the UK and how things might be improved for adolescents, their families and the communities in which they live.

Although the study was carried out in a South East England school, and most of the findings may be specific to that school, one of the main strengths of the study is the generality of its contribution to the knowledge and the implications of that knowledge for schools, teachers, and EI intervention programmes. In this way, the findings presented in this study can serve as a guide to inform decisions concerning the interventions and development of EI as well as raise issues that may not necessarily be anticipated by others involved in the enhancement of EI.

4.6. Researcher reflection

There are possible areas of tensions linked to qualitative research and a researchers' position (Robson, 2011). Robson (2011, p.408) suggests that there is a risk of researchers *'losing objectivity and not appraising evidence fairly'* if they are purely focused on answering research questions or overly concerned of being in a helping role. Moreover, he also suggests that there is a risk of becoming detached from the research environment if the researchers are desperately concerned with conducting a 'good piece of research.' These factors capture some of the concerns felt by this researcher and his position in relation to the interviews and observations in Study 1.

Throughout the process and development of Study 1, the researcher realised the legitimacy of Pole and Morrison's (2003) suggestion that qualitative research submerges unique positions with regards to place and time. While replication of the process of the study could be possible in an alternative context, it is doubtful that the results would be similar. In truth, if the same researcher replicated this study, the probability of reaching the same inferences is low. Changes in the context and participants undoubtedly impact on the findings, and correspondingly, the significance of the data selection and analysis cannot be sustained from one qualitative research to another. The perception of the research is liable to change, and thoughts that were clear previously may not apply to future studies. In essence, even reflecting on the same field notes and undertaking this study again different conclusions may be drawn, as in the interim period, the researchers' experiences could have changed impacting the understanding and opinion of certain events. In relation to this study, during the observations the researcher found it challenging to attend to several concurrent behaviours in the classroom and was only able to record one aspect of the lesson at a time. This meant he had to be subjective is his observational recordings and relied on memory and personal reflections to note down subsequent behaviours. Likewise, the use of framing the observation schedule reflecting on Petrides' theory of EI may have determined and influenced the data collection and subsequent findings. This could have biased the data and influenced the inferences made with different behaviours being possibly observed if an EI framework is not used in replicated future studies.

In addition, Study 1 has highlighted the benefits of being able to collect and analyse data simultaneously. Time constraints and limited resources available to the researcher resulted in the transcription of interviews/field notes of observations and subsequent analysis happening at a distance from data collection. Due to the time lapse, the researcher was unable to challenge any interpretation of the data from the field notes/interview transcriptions which could bring into question many of the researchers' judgements, making an evaluation of the validity difficult.

Moreover, throughout the process of Study 1, the researcher has put increasing value on the interrelating skills of precision and scepticism. In qualitative research, consideration and evaluation of precise details are vital, however, without the skill to continuously reassess ones' own perspectives and philosophies the process can be ineffective. The process of reflection combines the fundamental skills of critical reading and disciplined precise writing; for quantitative studies that focus on rich descriptions, the latter is especially difficult. The need to offer transparency in writing is continually frustrated as subtle alternate meanings transpire from seemingly straightforward concepts. The research process of this study has helped the researcher acknowledge and appreciate that research is not 'tidy.' The researcher has increased in confidence in unwrapping a network of ideas till clarity arises, yet simultaneously understanding that no matter how honed ideas and data are, it is impossible to attain comfortable satisfaction. This is because there are no idylls whereby complete certainty can be found, as exploration of side issues are ever present that change ones' perceptions of the data and continuously develop the inferences made. Self-assurance that all researchers accommodate such feelings has facilitated a sense of humbleness about how little the researcher knows coupled with excitement of how much there is discover and learn.

Chapter 5- Study 2 – The intervention study

5.1. Introduction

Prior to creating the intervention for this research, qualitative data was collected and analysed to inform the design and focus of the intervention programme (Study 1: RQ 1) in order to maximise participants' personal development and school achievement. Subsequent to capturing the views of teachers and observing the classrooms where EI occurs naturally,

the researcher believed the pupils had difficulty in their ability to identify, process and interpret their own and others mental states. For that reason, self-awareness along with empathy was chosen to be at the core of the intervention to try and address the second and third research questions

RQ 2: *Will Year 7 pupils EI and academic scores improve as a result of participating in an EI intervention programme?*

RQ 3: *Will the effects of an EI development programme be apparent on self-awareness and empathy after an 8-month follow up evaluation?*

Research has highlighted that enhancement in self-awareness and empathy boosts the social and emotional aspects of learning and encourages school engagement and academic performance, ultimately, providing better life outcomes (Caprara et al., 2000; Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Zins, 2004). Nevertheless, research into the impact of an integrated emotional intelligence programme in the UK following previous exploratory research on the participants has been seldom. The intervention in this study was designed to enhance pupils' empathy and self-awareness. The intervention content and strategies were aimed to be applicable in a wide range of situations, such as those related to general emotional management but also to parent and social relationships. However, as the setting of the intervention was in a school, and the explorative investigation took into account the transition specifically, many of the activities and tasks in the bespoke intervention focus on developing self-awareness and empathy in terms of academic experience and performance.

As mentioned in Study 1, self-awareness and empathetic responding is a significant determinant of successful social relationships (Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Petrides et al., 2006; Zins, 2004). This is particularly pertinent during the transition as peer groups begin to become increasingly important to a pupils' self-evaluation and the ability to sustain relationships with peers and cope with the academic challenges of school becomes the two main focuses of adolescence (Masten & Curtis 2000; Schwartz et al., 2008). Blatchford et al., (2015) suggest that as children spend most of their day with their classmates in school, the main focus of their socialisation switches from home to peer groups. Therefore, awareness of one's mental states and empathetic skills are vital as the status of a pupils' peer relations and how they are perceived by their peers is an important factor in how children will adjust

and perform within the school environment (Ladd et al., 2008). Consequently, pupils with a lack of self-awareness and empathetic skills, or pupils who are excluded by classmates are likely to be treated more negatively than accepted children, and peer acceptance has shown to reliably predict levels of academic readiness and classroom participation (Hubbard & Coie, 1994; Ladd et al., 2008). Furthermore, low levels of peer acceptance have been linked to the development of depressive symptomology which subsequently is linked to poorer academic performance (Schwartz et al., 2005; 2008).

As pupils experience negative thoughts and feelings during their course of education, they may need to depend on their ability to understand and manage their negative thoughts and feelings. In her work with secondary school pupils and their emotional regulation, Gumora (2000) found that children who can manage their emotions were better able to achieve the academic goals they set for themselves. A similar finding in the study conducted by Mischel et al., (1990), found that younger children (from the age of 5) who could understand and respond more appropriately to their emotions showed better academic and social skills later in their adolescence. For that reason, the current study aims to ascertain whether pupils EI and academic scores improve as a result of participating in an EI intervention programme focused on improving self-awareness and empathy.

There are some indications of possible outcomes and contributions of an intervention (see literature review 2.6.4). Pupils will exhibit academic improvements through a structured EI programme, and these improvements will be more prominent for pupils who engaged (and attended) with most of the sessions and received the programme for a longer period of time (Abbott et al., 1998; Battistich et al., 2004). The intervention aims to concurrently give pupils a better understanding of the consequences of their behaviour and potentially provide effective solution making and coping strategies. For this study, an initiative was developed for pupils (aged 11-12) in a secondary school following observations of their behaviour in class and direction from their teachers. The study included taking a baseline measure of EI with post-intervention comparison as part of the evaluative assessment of the training programme. The main purpose was to measure the impact of pupils' EI skills following participation in an EI intervention.

A further aim of this study is the exploration of the long-term impact of the intervention. Even though some evidence exists highlighting the long-term impacts of EI support

programmes (Deffenbacher et al., 2000; Lochman, 2003; Lochman et al., 1993), little research has collected long-term follow-up data (Sukhodolsky et al., 2004). Furthermore, the small evidence base mentioning the long-term effects have yielded inconsistent results with regards to the long-term impacts of such EI programmes for secondary school aged pupils (Wiglesworth et al., 2014; Ohl et al., 2012). Some evidence suggests that positive outcomes are maintained at follow-up. However, Bennett and Gibbons (2000) found improvements had not been sustained. Therefore, further research is needed in this area, and this study will attempt to fill this gap by collecting follow-up data.

In summary, it can be understood from the research mentioned above that for some children the acquisition of socio-emotional competency skills is more difficult than others. Generally, most pupils will successfully transition to the new social and academic school setting. However, as supported by Study 1, those who have poor emotional self-awareness (Eisenberg, 2000), high levels of negative self (Fables et al., 2002) and low peer and teacher status (Hymel et al., 1990), they risk failing to develop the required levels of social-emotional capability to similarly succeed in secondary school. Therefore, an EI intervention programme intended to help adolescents deal with difficulties by highlighting the significance of positive self-awareness and encouraging the pupils to develop empathy.

5.2. The development of the intervention programme

After reviewing the literature on different intervention approaches and due to the recurring themes in Study 1, the researcher decided to focus on developing emotions in four aspects (expression, perception, responding, and understanding) to pupils in Year 7. It was believed that for pupils to overcome any social and emotional difficulties it was important to adopt a comprehensive approach for pupils to recognise, express and respond to emotions, as well as understanding the context. The intervention programme was conducted over six weeks, for a total of 6 sessions (one forty-minute session per week) based on the availability afforded to the researcher by the school. One of the aims of the programme was to design the initiative so that it could be incorporated into any intervention approach which focused on a similar construct. Pupils that are in a mainstream setting should be able to use it readily; therefore it is important to use activities and materials that are available in educational settings. The programme included principles of emotional understanding such

as focusing on facial features, body language and specific social and educational situations using a wide range of training techniques and activities. Tasks included direct instruction, acting and role play, computer-based intervention, recognising emotions through drawing pictures and emoji's, and other activities that are explained in section 5.5.

Materials of interventions and support programmes that were based on similar constructs were reviewed in order to design activities that would teach children emotional functions. Descriptions of materials used in designing the programme are mentioned below:

- "The Learners Toolkit": a collection of materials that were used to supplement the SEAL framework in secondary schools and for all those teaching 11-16-year-olds (Beere & Gilbert, 2007). It contains materials to try and create independent learners, confident and resilient in their ability to learn and form lasting relationships. The toolkit contains 50 lessons to teach 50 competencies, each with teacher's notes, CD-ROM, pupil forms, and worksheets.
- The *"feelings"* cards are a collection of cards with emoticons that illustrate a big range of feelings in children and adults to be used in guiding children to understand their own feelings and the feelings of others and to learn how to respond in different situations. The researcher used the cards that were relevant to the focus of the session in the programme.
- Mr Face is a wall chart that has detachable pieces to create different expressions. It is designed to help children identify the different facial features and place them correctly on the outline (available from www.winslow-cat.com). This wall chart was used in an activity in the programme.
- Videos were used to introduce certain emotional constructs that were being developed. The clips were selected based on clip length, content, and suitability for age range.

5.3. Sessions

Focus and aims	Activity	Unit content
1. Introduction session – Perception and thinking – self-awareness Aim: Explore pupils thoughts and beliefs about themselves (to get to know oneself better)	Pupils have some open ended questions they answer individually to allow them to investigate their beliefs and values. Some example questions are: What makes you feel sad? How well do you cope when someone criticises you? How would you describe your personality? Pupils then work with peers to discuss their feelings and to open discourse to see if their partners agree or disagree with their thoughts. The activity ends with a reflective period whereby the pupils write down three things they learnt about themselves.	Activities intended to highlight 'How you think affects the way you act'. The session deals with the effects of different mindsets on expectations and perceptions. Academic performance can be dependent on positive self-perceptions due to the principle that we do well because we feel good about ourselves and what we can do (Pajares & Schunk, 2001). An activity from The Learners Toolkit will be adapted to focus on pupil's understandings of their thoughts and target reflection on how they may be able to control their emotions. It can be seen from the classroom observation examples and teacher responses in Study 1 that a common theme was the need to be seen, heard and feel good. Therefore, this session will allow pupils to explore their internal needs; feelings and desires which will aim to help them understand how they might respond in certain situations.
2. It's my life – Self-awareness Aims: To make pupils aware of what emotions in others may look like and how different situations may elicit various emotional outcomes.	Using the emoji flashcards, pupils will be asked to differentiate between the emotions that are being presented. Subsequently, pupils will be asked to present scenarios in which the emojis may or may not be used. Following this, pupils will be presented with different scenarios for example "A pupil needs help and he is ignored by the teacher", "A pupil is given constructive feedback from the teacher", "A pupil is unable to complete a task after many attempts", and via the emojis the pupils will show how the pupil in the scenario may have felt, but also how the pupil in the scenario may positively/negatively react in such circumstances.	Emotional intelligence, is the ability to recognize, label and understand feelings in one's self and others. It is a prerequisite skill for emotion regulation, successful interpersonal interactions and problem solving (Denham, 1986; Webster-Stratton, 1999). Therefore, this session will work with 'emotion lexicon' (words for feelings). Along with Ekman's Faces (Ekman & Rosenberg, 1997), this unit will utilise emojis to enable pupils to label and define emotions and contextualise their usage. From Study 1 it can be seen that pupils have difficulty in understanding positive and/or negative cues in emotions from their peers (empathy example). It is believed that larger more complex 'feelings' or emotions vocabulary will allow children to make finer discriminations between feelings, to communicate better with others, and to engage in discussions about their personal experiences within education.
3. You're worth it – Self-confidence Aims: To build self-confidence and	The main task of the session is for pupils to consider positive aspects of themselves alongside things they made need to work on with peer support and coaching. Pupils begin by rating their confidence on a scale of 1	Academic performance can be impacted by the pupil's level of self-esteem. Pupils can develop strategies to take control of how they feel about themselves and how to control their 'self-talk'. The lesson follows on from previous research conducted by Liddle and Macmillan (2010) and the FRIENDS programme. This Australian based programme focused on

enable pupils to know how to build their confidence explicitly.	(low) -10 (high) and writing five great things about themselves. This is followed by writing three things which need improvement. Pupils will then be paired up to discuss the positives and challenge each other with ideas to raise their achievement.	improving self-esteem and minimising low mood, with results showing significant improvements post-intervention. This study will differ from the previous study by being conducted with an older age group in a UK setting. Research has shown that low self-esteem can manifest in performance anxiety in school, leading to poorer academic outcomes (Baron-Cohen, 2004). Contextually, in Study 1 it was seen how pupils' progress may have been hindered due to lack of confidence in class (self-confidence example 1). Therefore this unit, adapted from the Learner's Toolkit, will allow pupils to think about themselves positively and focus on their strengths. This is aimed to build self-assurance so that pupil's may engage more in classroom activities.
4. Talking to others – put yourself in other's shoes – Empathy Aims: To be able to see situations in a different perspective. Pupils will know how important and difficult it is to try to see things from other people's viewpoint.	Initially, pupils are asked to rate out of 10 how they get on with various people in their lives (friends, siblings, teachers etc). Subsequently, pupils are given various statements about school and academia and are asked to give their personal opinions about the statements. Statements include things such as "Pupils should be paid to go to school", "There should be no homework for children". Following this, pupils are encouraged to argue the opposite view to their original statements, to enable them to see another person's perspective. The other person perspective may be a teacher, a parent/guardian or other authority figures.	This session is comparable to the content of another small group SEAL programme, New Beginnings (NB) (Humphrey et al., 2010). NB focused on key social and emotional aspects of learning addressing empathy, self-awareness and social skills. The study reported NB was successful in promoting social and emotional competence and that improvements were sustained at a seven-week follow-up. A role-play activity from the Learner's Toolkit will be adapted as role-play is seen to be a good way of improving communication and empathy (Stephan et al., 1999). Accordingly, this lesson will aim to provide pupils with the awareness of other's feelings and points of view. From the observations in Study 1 it can be seen that a lack of empathy can detrimentally affect not only the pupils themselves, by negatively affecting their social relationships but also their peers. This lesson will therefore aim to improve pupil's empathy and consequently enhance their academic performance.
5. Communicate and co-operate for success – communication and teamwork Aims: This session is about being good at teamwork and interacting well with others.	The pupils commence by reflecting on two examples where they have put someone else's needs before their own. Subsequently, in a group they think of six ways to help someone else succeed or be happy. To end, they investigate how funds could be raised for a charity by creating a mini campaign.	Pupils who have poor communicative skills are likely to be less favoured by their teachers and are believed to be less likeable by their peers (Eisenberg et al., 1995). Such pupils are perceived as more susceptible to low self-esteem, which may limit educational opportunities (Flouri et al., 2000). This session is akin to the Social Skills intervention (Maddern et al., 2004) and the Pyramid Club (Ohl et al., 2008). These programmes developed children's co-operative skills and social skills respectively. The Pyramid club most importantly found the intervention had a positive impact on pupil's social-emotional health and also decreased peer problems. Furthermore, from Study 1 it was seen how lack of

		communication skills can diminish social relationships. Therefore, this session will aim to develop pupil's interactive skills by developing their rapport making skills, enabling them to work in groups and consequently boosting their performance.
6. Goals for life – Self-awareness/motivation Aims: Pupils will understand how important it is to have long term and short term goals in school and life	Pupils begin by listing famous and successful people. They then think about things these people may have had in common and how they may have reached their success. This is followed by focusing on creating their own future and setting goals. The pupils write down goals for the day and long term goals and consider steps to achieve such goals and a time frame to reach these goals by. They will then deliberate with their partners to give feedback on each other's goal settings.	In this session pupils will be encouraged to practice creating positive scenarios which may impact their attitude, outlook and achievement. The session relates to the small group SEAL intervention Going for Goals (GfG) (Humphrey et al., 2010). This primary school based intervention focused primarily on motivation and self-awareness and showed a beneficial effect on pupil's self-reported EI scores following the programme (Humphrey et al., 2010). Teachers also reported considerable development in participant's self-esteem after the GfG. Therefore, an activity from Beere's Learners Toolkit has been adapted to firstly differentiate from the GfG and suit the secondary school age group of the current study and also to emphasise the self-belief factor in goal setting. Observations in Study 1 demonstrated that pupils often become disengaged with their classes and lose focus in their work (motivation observation) and consequently only study when probed by the teachers. This session will accordingly aim to enable pupils to create short-term and long-term goals to continue tasks autonomously and effectively in class. As can be seen from the GfG, it is hoped that if their motivational competence is enhanced it will lead to improved academic achievement.

Table 3: Session of the intervention in Study 2.

5.4. Focus of Study 2 – research questions and hypotheses

The main aim of this research was to evaluate the efficacy of a bespoke training programme designed to facilitate and promote social and emotional understanding of children in Year 7 following a transition to secondary school. The research questions and hypotheses for Study 2 can be found in Table 4.

Research question	Experimental hypothesis	Null hypothesis
Will Year 7 pupils EI and academic scores improve as a result of participating in an EI intervention programme?	Pupils in the emotional intelligence intervention will exhibit an improved EI score (at Time 2)	There will be no statistically significant difference between the EI scores of those participants in the intervention condition and those participants in the control group between pre-test and post-test measures.
	End of year academic results will improve after participation in an emotional learning intervention programme for those in the EI intervention group	There will be no difference in the expected academic results after participation in an emotional learning intervention programme for those in the EI intervention group
	The effects of an EI development programme will be apparent on self-awareness and empathy after an 8-month follow-up evaluation	There will be no statistically significant difference between the EI scores of those participants in the intervention condition and those participants in the control group between pre-test and post-test measures after an 8-month follow-up.

Table 4: Research questions and hypotheses for Study 2

5.5. Methods

5.5.1. Research Design

A quasi-experimental methodology was used, where one group received the intervention treatment, and one group continued following the curriculum and study skills (control group).

Quantitative data included pupils' self-reported perception of emotional intelligence, self-perception, and empathy. These data were collected at three-time points: pre-intervention (T1), post-intervention (T2) and follow-up (T3). Further demographic information and academic performance scores were taken from the school database. The qualitative data

was gathered in the first stage of the research in the form of interviews and observations (Study 1).

Table 5 below illustrates the study design at three test periods for the control group and the intervention group.

	Baseline assessment	Intervention	Post Assessment	8-month Follow-up
Intervention Group	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form	Provide programme	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form
	Self-Concept: Self-Perception Profile for Children		*Self-Concept:* Self-Perception Profile for Children	*Self-Concept:* Self-Perception Profile for Children
	Empathy: Interpersonal Reactivity Index		*Empathy:* Interpersonal Reactivity Index	*Empathy:* Interpersonal Reactivity Index
Control Group	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form	No programme	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form	*Emotional intelligence*: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire – Child Form
	Self-Concept: Self-Perception Profile for Children		*Self-Concept:* Self-Perception Profile for Children	*Self-Concept:* Self-Perception Profile for Children
	Empathy: Interpersonal Reactivity Index		*Empathy:* Interpersonal Reactivity Index	*Empathy:* Interpersonal Reactivity Index

Table 5: Study design at the three-time points for the intervention and control group.

5.5.2. Participants

All the pupils were enrolled in the same South East England state comprehensive secondary school (for more information about the see section 3.3). The study evaluated the

effectiveness of an intervention programme with pupils in a Year 7 tutor group with a mean age of 11 years and 3 months. The intervention group contained 30 pupils (male *n=13,* and female *n=17)* while the control group consisted of 30 pupils (male *n=15,* and female *n=15)* with the groups being allocated by the Head of Year 7. The pupils from both groups were observed in Study 1.

5.5.3. Measures

EI: Trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire Child Form (TEIQue-CF – Petrides et al., 2008)

The TEIQue-CF has been widely used in research (Mavrovelli et al., 2008;; Barlow et al., 2010; Russo et al., 2012; Agnoli et al., 2012; Qualter et al., 2011; Frederickson et al., 2012; Andrei et al., 2014; Petrides et al., 2003). It is a child-report questionnaire, derived from the full form of the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2009), and designed to assess nine areas of the sampling domain of EI consisting of emotional regulation, self-motivation and trait empathy. The TEIQue-CF includes 75 items and is suitable for individuals aged between 8 and 13 years. Questionnaire items consist of a statement (e.g., "When I feel sad, I try to keep myself busy"; "If I don't do something well, I don't like trying again") and a 5-point answering likert scale ranging from 'completely disagree' to 'completely agree'. Respondents are required to indicate the extent to which the statement applies to their experiences.

If I don't do something well, I don't like trying again	Disagree Completely	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Completely

Responses produce subscale scores for each nine areas of trait emotional intelligence and global trait emotional intelligence score combining all nine subscale scores. The TEIQue-CF has demonstrated satisfactory levels of internal consistency (.79) and temporal stability over a 3-month interval (r=.79 and r (corrected) =1.00 (see Mavroveli et al., 2008). Given that this was a study on the role EI on adolescents, and Trait EI was seen as most appropriate for the pupils' age group (see Literature review) the TEIQue-CF was considered to be an appropriate

and valid measure. The TEIQue-CF was also chosen as it has been widely used in comparable studies (Mavrovelli et al., 2008; Barlow et al., 2010; Russo et al., 2012; Agnoli et al., 2012; Qualter et al., 2011; Frederickson et al., 2012; Andrei et al., 2014; Petrides et al., 2003), is relatively brief and is available free to researchers.

Self-Perception - The Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC - Harter, 1999)

The Self-Perception Profile for Children was used to assess participants' self-perception. The measure was specifically designed for young pupils and is available for free for researchers. The measure measures the participants' perceptions of themselves and examines the differences in their scores to provide the most accurate portrayal of the individuals' self-concept. The SPPC contains six subscales that assessed five specific domains as well as a separate dimension of global self-worth. The specific domains include scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioural conduct and global self-worth. Each of the six subscales contains six items, totalling 36 items. The two-choice question format first asks the participant to decide the statement that best describes them, and then choose whether this is 'sort of true' or 'really true.'

Really true for me	Sort of true for me				Sort of true for me	Really true for me
		Some of the kids do very well at their homework	OR	Other kids don't do very well on their homework		

Furthermore, Harter (1999) demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (alpha = .76 - .83 across subscales) and stability reliability over three months (alpha = .7 - .87) for the Perceived Competence Scale with 133 secondary school population in the US. In addition, the internal consistency (.73) and test-retest stability (r= .61) of the SPPC scales can be

defined as satisfactory (Granleese & Joseph, 1999; Muris et al., 2003; Van Dongen-Melman et al., 1999).

Empathy - Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI - Davis, 1983)

The final questionnaire the participants responded to was the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI, Davis, 1983). This 28-item questionnaire proposes a four-factor structure of empathy. This includes the understanding of others' thinking; Perspective Taking (PT), the ability to emotionally sympathise; Empathic Concern (EC), tendencies to empathise with fictional characters; Fantasizing (FN) and the negative consequences of being sensitive to others; Personal Distress (PD). Each of the four subscales comprises of seven statements and a 5-point likert scale ranging from 'does not describe me well' to 'describes me very well.' Participants denote the extent to which the statement applies to them with a possible score between 0-28 for each subscale; a higher score denotes a greater level of the corresponding characteristic. Hawk et al., (2013) investigated reliability of the IRI domains in a sample of 'early adolescents' (on average 13 years old), finding that PT (α = .67), EC (α = .70), FN (α = .78) and PD (α = .73) have acceptable internal reliability. Schutte and Malouff (2001) also found that the subscales were sensitive to interventions aimed at enhancing empathetic skills, and therefore, the IRI was seen to be a suitable and valid measure for this study.

Academic Performance

Academic performance was measured using standard assessment Maths and English scores at the end of Year 7. These data were obtained from central records held by the school. Prior academic performance was based on Key Stage 2 scores which are typically taken near the end of Year 6. Additional demographic information (gender and attendance) were treated as control variables.

The independent variables in this study were the two groups (intervention and control), and gender of the participants whilst the dependent variables in the study are listed in Table 6 in addition to end of year English and Maths grades.

Name of Instrument	Sub Scale	Desired direction of change for two-tailed hypothesis testing
Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Children (TEIQue-CF – Petrides, K. 2008)	Adaptability Emotional Expression Emotional Perception Self-Motivation Self-esteem Low Impulsivity Peer Relations Emotional Regulation Affective Disposition Overall EI	An increase in all sub scales scores pre to post testing
Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC – Harter, S. 1999)	Scholastic Competence Social Competence Athletic Competence Physical Appearance Behavioural Conduct Global Self-worth	Desired increase in all sub scale scores pre to post testing
Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI – Davis, M. 1983)	Perspective Taking Fantasy Empathic Scale	Desired increase in sub scales scores from pre to post testing
	Personal Distress	A decrease in scores pre to post testing

Table 6: Dependent variables of Study 2

5.5.4. Role of the researcher and his effect on validity and reliability

In all research, the researcher has a degree of involvement that could jeopardise the validity of the conclusions drawn from the study. In most experimental research, the researcher takes a role in collecting data, analysing, drawing conclusions, and ascertaining implications. When the analysis is quantitative, the threats are reduced, as the researcher deals with data that are already there and analyses them using a set formula. However, even this type of method has its own threats; there are other factors we cannot control. It is advisable, in quasi-experimental designs, that the person or team who carries out the assessment is different from the person or team who carries out the intervention. In this case, the

researcher collected both the pre- and post-assessment and led the intervention as such a sharing arrangement was not accessible. Numerous steps were taken to achieve reliability and validity and avoid bias, and they will be discussed further in the discussion section.

Reliability was attained via corresponding forms of data collection - if they are conducted and suggest similar results, then can be said to show reliability (Cohen et al., 2000). The present researcher chose four assessment tools in the quantitative method that measure social skills, emotional understanding, and academic achievement.

5.5.5. Internal Validity

The accuracy of the findings can determine the validity of a study. Intervention designs necessitate certain measures are taken to ensure the results are reliable (Robson, 2002). Good internal validity of a study highlights that the causal link between the independent variable (e.g. an intervention) and the dependent variable (e.g. changes in emotional intelligence) (Robson, 2002), are not as a result of external (extraneous) variables. External factors can potentially impact the dependent variables, and jeopardise the study's internal validity. Some potential external variables pertinent to this study are mentioned below as well as the steps taken to mediate their effect:

1) Testing - the familiarity acquired from a pre-test, that may change the participant's answers during the study. As the intervention and control group took part in the pre- and post-tests in this study the impact of testing could be found in both groups. Thus, testing was deemed a low threat.

2) Measurement threats can arise as a result of a change in measurement tool used in evaluating the dependent variable between pre- and post-intervention. The same measures were employed throughout this study, and thus, measurement threats were deemed a low threat

3) Experimental mortality - a threat of participants dropping out during the intervention leading to differences between the intervention and control groups. As this was a short-term intervention morality threats were minimal.

4) Maturation – the natural growth, change or developmental in participants over the period of the research. These changes are not linked to the effect of the intervention. Use of a control group eliminated threats of maturation because all participants experienced the same maturational changes over the intervention period. Similarly, maturation threat was considered minimal because of the short intervention period.

5) Treatment fidelity – is the level in which the researcher accurately implements the intervention as specified (Mertens, 2010). The accuracy of implementation can be monitored by the researcher, and as the researcher designed and delivered the intervention himself, treatment integrity was considered to be high.

5.5.6. External Validity

If the research outcomes are observable in another setting they are considered externally valid or generalizable (Mertens, 2010; Robson, 2002). External validity and internal validity usually work opposite to each other. Efforts to reinforce the internal validity of the study can decrease the generalizability of the research (Robson, 2002). Yet, internal and external validity is crucial in research (Mertens, 2010). Below, some threats to the external validity of the study:

1) Threats to selection may allude to the results being exclusive to the intervention group.

2) Threats of the setting may allude to the results being exclusive to the research context.

3) Threats of maturation may allude to the impact of natural growth that may influence or affect the results.

4) Construct impacts allude that the variables of interest are exclusive to the intervention group.

The threats to the external validity of the present research involve a whole class of pupils in a Year 7 class, in a school in South East of UK, with pupils possessing similar characteristics.

5.5.7. Data Analysis

The principle objective of the present study was to investigate the impact of an intervention programme that focuses on emotional intelligence constructs (self-awareness and empathy). Therefore, there was a comparison of the changes from baseline to post-intervention to

follow-up of both groups (the intervention and the control group). The assumption is that any difference in changes between the two groups reflects an effect of the intervention (Cohen et al., 2006; Muijs, 2010).

Scores were calculated for each construct for each participant in all three measures. Data were divided into control and intervention groups, and means and standard deviations were computed to assess each variable. To test significant differences between the two groups a 2*2 mixed ANOVA was used. Time was the first within-factor analysed, as data was collected at three different time periods (pre-, post- and 8 months after the intervention) and secondly, there were two levels that comprised the between-group factor (the intervention group and the control group). An ANOVA was used to analyse data (when the requirements were met for such testing), as this parametric testing is deemed to be a powerful way of analysing results (Fields, 2013). Consequently, any significant outcomes were subject to inferential statistical testing to investigate the within and between-group differences.

As the TEIQue-CF does not have an overall EI sub-construct scale, an overall EI score was computed to generate an overall EI score for the participants. This was done by combining each individual score and dividing it by the total number of questions. Subsequently, the overall EI score was added as an independent variable and included in the analysis. The results in addition to being analysed at an intervention and control group level were also analysed with regard to two further levels of baseline EI – high/low EI scores. This enabled an investigation whether participants with 'high' or low' initial level of EI cope better with the transition and if these baseline groups react differently to the intervention. This followed Qualter's study (2007) and was generated using the median of the overall EI score (at Time 1), and therefore, participants who scored above 188 were classified at high EI, and those who scored below 187 were classified as low.

Selection of Parametric and Non-Parametric Techniques

Assumption testing was necessary for the initial stages of the data analysis. It involved scrutinising the suitability of data for analysis to use either parametric or non-parametric test (depending on a normally distributed sample). It is not recommended to use parametric techniques (e.g. an ANOVA) when data violates the assumption of normality since these

construe that data is 'normal' or 'similar in shape' (Howell, 2012). If data is not normally distributed alternative non-parametric techniques should be used, which are deemed to be less powerful or sensitive than parametric ones, meaning it could '*fail to detect differences between groups that actually exist*' (Pallant, 2007, p.74). Nevertheless, it is considered better to use non-parametric techniques in such instances as they do not make assumptions about the distribution of the data. As tenets of Null Hypothesis Testing depend on probabilities, it necessitates consideration of these assumptions to be able to get reliable results.

Regarding the present data, initial analysis utilising descriptive analysis deemed it acceptable to use parametric testing. Data was normally distributed with no extreme scores. Levene's test for equality of variance was conducted and it showed that there *was* homogeneity of variance for several dependent variables (a prerequisite for parametric testing) (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar 2009). However, there were several instances where there was not homogeneity of variance between the groups: Pre-test empathic concern (IRI measure), pre-test affective disposition and post-test self-motivation (TEIQue-CF measure). One-Way ANOVA found a significant difference between the control and intervention groups in these sub-constructs, with the intervention group scoring significantly higher than the control group: $F(1,58) = 11.88$; $p<0.01$ for the pre-test empathic concern whilst the control group scored considerably higher than the experimental group: $F(1, 58) = 7.152$, $p<.01$ for the pre-test affective disposition and $F(1,58) = 4.017$, $p<.05$ for post-test self-motivation. For the cases where the sphericity was violated the greenhouse geisser was used.

No other significant differences were found between groups. As mentioned before, to compare pre-, post and follow- up differences in pupils' score for the different measures, descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations were initially investigated. The means and standard deviations for the two groups; pre-, post and following the intervention are presented in the tables below on all dependent variables in the study.

5.8. Study 2 Results

All participants in the intervention and control group (*n=60)* completed the pre-, post- and follow-up questionnaires. The intervention group (*n=30*) consisted of 13 males and 17

females, whilst the control group comprised of an equal number of males and females *(n=30)* .No data were missing.

Data were collected eight months after the pupils completed the intervention. This can provide insight into the following questions. Firstly, did the pupils maintain post-test gains at follow-up? Secondly, were there any improvements at follow-up that were not present at post-test?

TEIQUE-CF Results

For the intervention group, a comparison of the descriptive statistics revealed a difference between participants' mean scores at pre- and post-test for Self-esteem, Low impulsivity, Emotional Regulation and Affective Disposition (See table 7 for TEIQue-CF mean and standard deviation scores). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variables.

For the control group, the descriptive statistics revealed mean differences between participants' pre-test and post-test scores in Adaptability, Emotional Expression, Self-Motivation, Emotional Regulation and Affective disposition (See table 7 for TEIQue-CF mean and standard deviation scores). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variables.

A mixed 2*2 ANOVA of the mean scores was completed for each of the subscales for analysis. The within-subjects variable (time) had two levels; pre- and post-test and subsequently, post-test and follow-up. The between-subjects variable (group) had two levels; intervention group and no intervention (control group). The dependent variables for each ANOVA were the dependent variable constructs (one per ANOVA).

For the TEIQue-CF instrument, examination of the data using the 2*2 mixed ANOVA revealed post-intervention scores were significantly higher than pre-intervention scores; $F(1, 58)=6.70$, $p<.05$ (all F ratios arising from the TEIQue-CF two way ANOVA's can be seen in Appendix 5). (See table 7 for mean scores; figure 5 for a profile plot to show the mean pre (1) and post (2) affective disposition scores for both the intervention and control group).

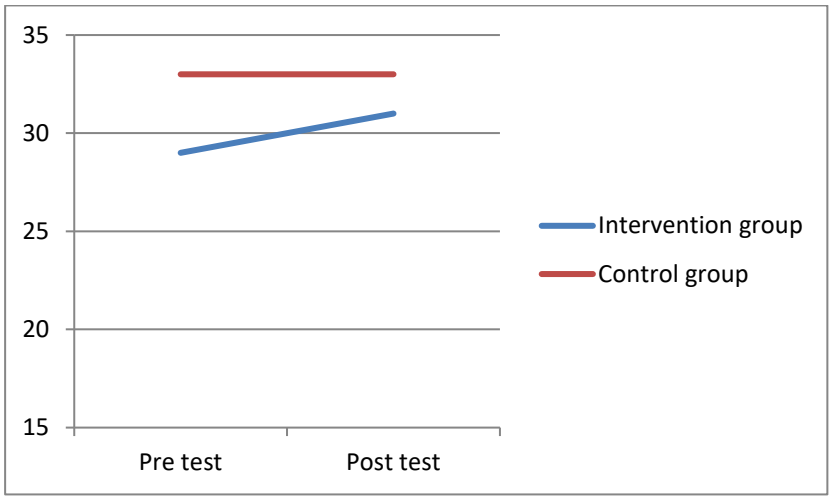

Figure 5: A profile plot to show the mean pre (1) and post (2) affective disposition scores for both the intervention and control group

For the Affective Disposition construct, when the results were further split to high and low scores, the 2*2 ANOVA showed a significant effect of time on baseline low Affective Disposition scores; $F(1, 28)=10.18$, $p<.01$. An independent t-test was used to compare the low Affective Disposition group's differences which found that participants with low baseline Affective Disposition scores in both groups improved from pre-test to post-test suggesting that the participants with overall low Affective Disposition scores can improve in their use of moral judgements about characters in a narrative regardless of the intervention. An increase in the scores for all participants in the low baseline group, in both the intervention and control group highlights an improvement in affective disposition.

However, the main effect of group for affective disposition scores decreased at follow-up from the post-test $F(1, 56) = 1.59$, $p>.05$). This is possibly due to the effects of the intervention fading, or, as will be discussed in the discussion section, the maturation of the pupils from post-test to follow-up.

The ANOVA results for the remainder of the TEIQue-CF sub-constructs found the differences were not significant for time (pre- to post-test - see Appendix 5 for TEIQue-CF two-way ANOVA scores), group or any significant interactions.

With regards to the pupils' EI scores at the 8-month follow-up, mixed ANOVA displayed a main effect of time for Adaptability ($F(1,56)=35.46$, $p<.001$), Self-Motivation ($F(1,56)=7.34$, $p<.01$), Low Impulsivity ($F(1,56)=25.07$, $p<.001$), Peer relations ($F(1,56)=4.476$, $p<.05$), Emotional Regulation ($F(1,56)=20.88$, $p<.001$) and Overall EI ($F(1,56)=34.134$, $p<.001$). Comparison of the mean scores for these constructs revealed pupils' scores lowered for these sub-constructs from post-test to follow-up irrespective of the intervention (See table 7 – follow-up means scores). This is possibly due to greater awareness and understanding of these abilities from the over-estimation in the post-test measures which will be discussed in the discussion.

A significant interaction was found between the two groups and the post-intervention and follow-up time period for Self-Motivation ($F(1,56)=7.37$, $p<.01$). An independent t-test was conducted to compare the group differences between the intervention and the control group and this highlighted significant differences in scores between the intervention and control group at post-test; $t(58) = 2.004$, $p<.05$ but no significant differences at follow-up (See table 7 – post-test and follow-up mean scores). This indicates that although the control group had higher levels of self-motivation at post-test, there were no significant differences between the groups at follow-up.

	Pre-test				Post-test				Follow-up			
	Control (*n=30)*		Intervention (*n=30)*		Control (*n=30)*		Intervention (*n=30)*		Control (n=28)		Intervention (n=30)	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Adaptability	31.8	5.9	31.5	5.9	31.7	4.9	29.9	5.1	26.6	3.5	26.8	2.7
Emotional Expression	27.5	4.5	27.2	5.5	27.8	5.3	26.2	4.7	26.5	2.4	27.0	3.7
Emotional Perception	27.8	5.1	27.7	5.3	27.57	5.0	27.0	4.1	25.8	2.8	25.8	3.0
Self-Motivation	30.6	4.7	30.5	4.7	30.7	5.9	27.9	4.9	27.6	3.4	26.5	2.6
Self-esteem	22.7	4.9	20.8	4.9	21.5	5.4	21.5	3.6	20.8	4.2	21.5	4.1
Low Impulsivity	19.8	4.9	18.2	4.2	19.8	3.8	19.8	3.6	15.8	3.4	17.0	2.4
Peer Relations	35.7	5.4	34.0	5.8	33.9	5.7	32.7	4.4	29.5	7.1	32.5	4.6
Emotional Regulation	30.0	4.5	29.7	4.5	31.7	5.4	30.7	5.8	28.2	4.2	26.2	3.1
Affective Disposition	33.1	5.9	29.0	6.0	33.3	5.6	31.0	5.9	25.6	5.8	25.5	5.1
Global EI	3.4	0.4	3.3	0.4	3.4	0.5	3.3	0.4	3.0	0.2	3.0	.2

Table 7: Means table for the intervention and control group for the TEIQue-CF

SPPC Harter results

For the intervention group, an initial consideration of the means suggest a difference between participants' scores at pre- and post-test for Scholastic Competence, Athletic Competence, Physical Appearance and Behavioural Conduct (See Table 8 for SPPC mean and standard deviation scores). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variables.

For the control group, the means revealed a difference between participants' scores at pre- and post-test for Athletic Competence, Behavioural Conduct, and Global Self-worth (See Table 8 for SPPC mean and standard deviation scores). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variables.

Examination of the data using a 2*2 mixed ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of time for the behavioural conduct subscale: F (1, 58) = 5.48, $p<.05$ (all F ratios arising from the SPPC two way ANOVA's can be seen in Appendix 6). Descriptive statistics of the mean scores show the scores for behavioural conduct for all participants, regardless of participation in the intervention, improved from pre-test to post-test (See Table 8 for SPPC mean scores; figure 6 for a profile plot to show the mean pre (1) and post (2) behavioural conduct scores for both the intervention and control group). An increase in the scores for both the groups indicates an increase in pupils' self-reported behavioural conduct over the pre-post time periods.

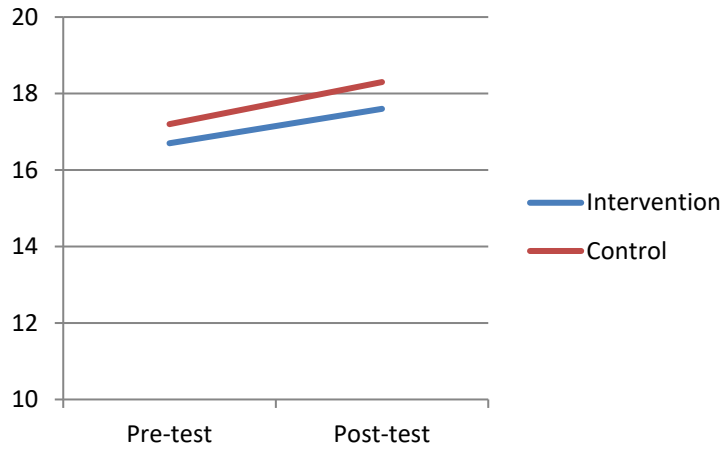

Figure 6: A profile plot to show the mean pre (1) and post (2) behavioural conduct scores for both the intervention and control group

The result for self-reported behavioural conduct over time was significantly different at follow-up from post-test (F (1, 58) = 5.48, $p<.05$), indicating that the gains had been maintained since the post-test. Comparison of the means highlights that scores continued to increase until the 8-month follow-up for behavioural conduct irrespective of the intervention training (See Table 8 for mean SPPC scores).

The remaining ANOVA results of the mean scores for the remainder of the SPPC sub-constructs found the differences were not significant over time, group or any significant differences between time and group interaction (all F ratios arising from the SPPC two way ANOVA's can be seen in Appendix 6).

	Pre-test				Post-test				Follow-up			
	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)		Control (n=29)		Intervention (n=29)	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Scholastic Competence	16.5	4.0	15.0	2.9	16.3	4.0	15.9	4.0	16.5	3.3	15.2	4.3
Social Competence	17.6	4.6	16.3	4.0	17.0	3.9	15.8	3.9	16.3	3.2	15.5	4.6
Athletic Competence	16.1	3.8	15.8	4.5	16.8	4.1	16.9	4.1	16.2	3.2	15.6	4.8
Physical Appearance	15.7	5.2	14.2	4.5	15.6	4.6	14.6	4.6	15.1	3.5	15.1	3.6
Behavioural Conduct	17.2	4.1	16.7	3.1	18.3	3.6	17.6	3.6	17.6	3.7	17.0	2.8
Global Self-worth	17.1	4.0	15.9	4.6	17.8	4.2	15.8	4.2	16.4	3.8	15.8	4.3

Table 8: Means table intervention and control for SPPC

IRI Davis Results

For the intervention group, the means revealed a difference between participants' scores at pre- and post-test for Perspective Taking only (See Table 9 for IRI mean and standard deviation scores). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variables.

For the control group, however, the means revealed a difference between participants' scores at pre and post-test for Fantasy Scale, Empathic Concern and the Personal Distress Scale (See Table 9 for IRI means). There were no differences in mean scores for the other dependent variable.

The 2*2 ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for the empathic scale: $F(1, 58) = 13.74$, $p<.001$(all F ratios arising from the IRI two way ANOVA's can be seen in Appendix 7). An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the empathic concern scores between the two groups. There was significant differences in scores between the intervention (M=20.2, SD=4.3) and control group (M=16.5, SD=4.1) at pre-test; $t(58) = -3.447$, $p<.001$) but no significant differences at post-test (intervention M=18.0, SD=4.6; control group M=17.8, SD=4.4) (See Table 9 for IRI means). This indicates a decrease for the intervention group, yet an increase for the control group.

Nevertheless, there was a main effect of time for empathic concern at follow-up for the intervention group which saw empathic concern scores increase at follow-up from post-test ($F(1,56)=40.36$, $p<.001$) (See table 9 for mean scores for IRI follow-up).

There were no other significant differences of the mean scores for the remainder of the IRI sub-constructs from pre- to post-test. Nonetheless, the 2*2 follow-up analysis revealed a main effect of time from post-intervention to follow-up for perspective taking ($F(1,56)=51.87$, $p<.001$), fantasy scale ($F(1,56)=56.00$, $p<.001$) and personal distress ($F(1,56)=60.15$, $p<.001$) (See Appendix 7 for IRI ANOVA scores). Therefore, a comparison of the means (See table 9 for mean IRI scores) highlights that for all the empathy sub-

constructs pupils increased in empathy levels from post-test to follow-up regardless of whether they were in the intervention or control group.

	Pre-test				Post-test				Follow-up			
	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Perspective Taking	14.7	5.3	14.0	3.8	14.3	5.2	15.7	3.6	21.6	5.0	20.5	4.0
Fantasy Scale	13.5	4.9	15.8	5.7	13.9	4.8	15.3	7.0	21.5	6.2	19.9	4.5
Empathic Concern	16.5	4.1	20.2	4.3	17.8	4.4	18	4.6	23.5	4.7	23.0	3.5
Personal Distress Scale	11.4	4.2	13.1	6.3	12.0	4.0	11.6	5.0	19.2	6.9	20.1	5.8

Table 9: Means table for intervention and control group for IRI

For a summary of the statistically significant results from pre-post test and post-follow up test of all the measures see Appendix 14.

EI and Gender

An analysis was conducted to determine if demographic factors such as gender, attendance, and KS2 scores were significant contributors to the difference between the first and second EI test scores and if they were predictive of academic achievement. Levene's test for equality of variance was again undertaken on the data set and indicated that there *was* homogeneity of variance for several dependent variables; however, it also highlighted the areas where there was not homogeneity of variance between the groups. Differences were found for female participants in certain sub-constructs, namely: Pre-test empathic concern (IRI measure), pre-test affective disposition, pre-test self-esteem, post-test adaptability and post-test self-motivation (TEIQue-CF measure). One-Way ANOVA found a significant difference between the female control and intervention groups in these sub constructs, with the control group scoring considerably higher than the experimental group: $F(1, 32) = 15.001$, $p<.001$ for the pre-test empathic concern, $F(1,32) = 4.64$, $p<.05$ for pre-test affective disposition, $F(1,32) = 5.62$, $p<.05$ for post adaptability, $F(1, 32) = 9.81$, $p<.01$ for post self-motivation and $F(1, 32) = 4.20$, $p<.05$ for pre self-esteem scores. No other significant differences were found between groups.

To compare pre- and post-test differences in pupils' score for the different measures, descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations were initially investigated. The means and standard deviations for male and females; pre and post-intervention are presented in the tables below (Tables 12 to 17) on all dependent variables in the study. For this analysis male and female scores were investigated separately to see how the intervention affected the genders separately.

Male scores

For males, the means revealed a difference between participants' scores at pre- and post-test in both the intervention and control group (Tables 12, 14 and 16). However, a repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant interaction for the empathic concern: $F(1, 26) = 21.03$, $p<.001$ only. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the empathic concern scores between the two groups for males. There were significant differences in scores between the intervention (M=14.5, SD=3.5) and control group (M=18.6, SD=5.2) at post-testing; $t(26) = 2.454$, $p<.05$) but no significant differences at pre-test (all F ratios arising from the IRI two way ANOVA's for gender can be seen in Appendix 10). Therefore, it seems the males' empathic concern score reduced over the two time periods (see Figure 7).

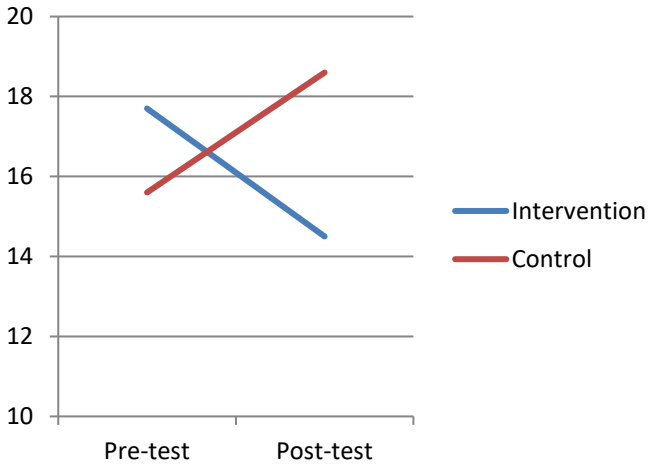

Figure 7: A profile plot to show the males mean pre (1) and post (2) empathic concern scores for both the intervention and control group

Female scores

For females, the means revealed a difference between participants' scores at pre- and post-test in both the intervention and control group (Tables 13, 15 and 17). A mixed ANOVA revealed a main effect of time for females in emotional regulation $F(1, 30) = 4.72$, $p<.05$; athletic competence $F(1, 30) = 4.68$, $p<.05$; behavioural conduct $F(1, 30) = 4.58$, $p<.05$ and personal distress $F(1, 30) = 4.848$, $p<.05$. An increase in the mean scores for the females, in both the intervention and control group for the said sub-constructs highlight an improvement in emotional regulation, athletic competence and behaviour and also a decrease in their levels of personal distress (See figures 8, 9, 10 and 11). The results show that the said constructs for all female participants in both groups improved from pre-test to post-test suggesting that the girls are developing at a faster rate than the boys regardless of the intervention.

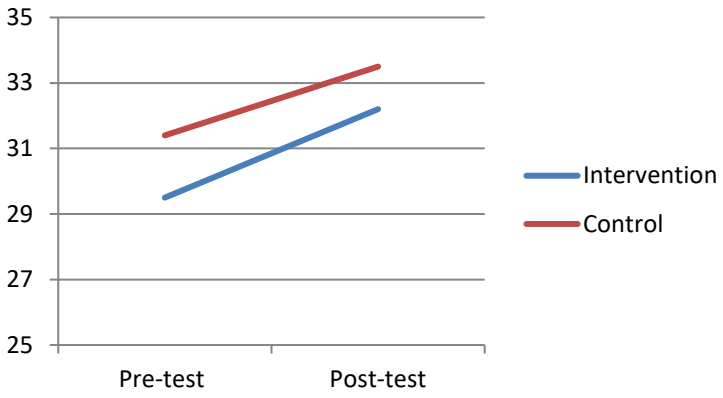

Figure 8: A profile plot to show the females mean pre (1) and post (2) emotional regulation scores for both the intervention and control group

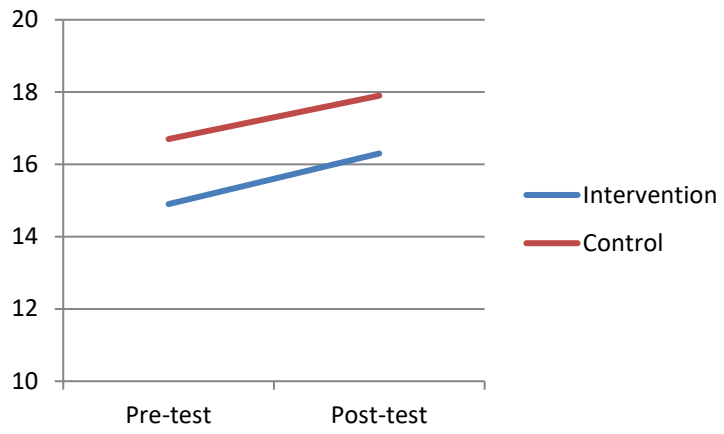

Figure 9: A profile plot to show the females mean pre (1) and post (2) athletic competence scores for both the intervention and control group

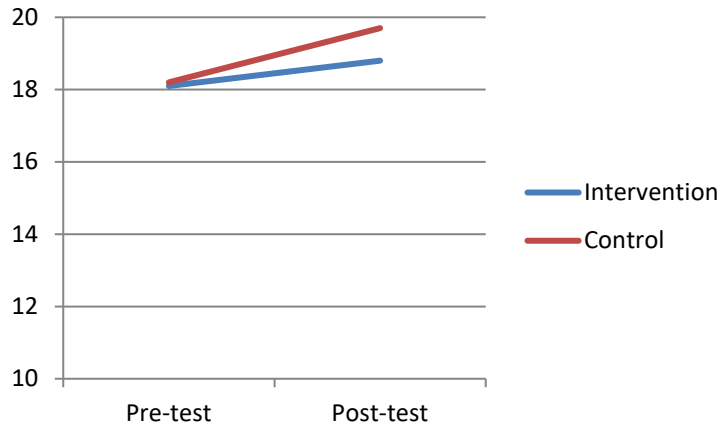

Figure 10: A profile plot to show the females mean pre (1) and post (2) behavioural conduct scores for both the intervention and control group

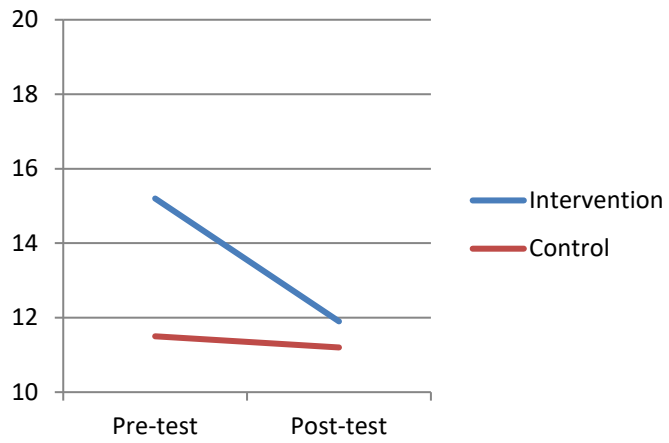

Figure 11: A profile plot to show the females mean pre (1) and post (2) personal distress scores for both the intervention and control group

Additionally, 2*2 mixed ANOVA analysis revealed a main effect of group amongst the females for self-motivation $F(1, 30)=5.83$, $p<.05$ and empathic concern $F(1, 30)=14.48$, $p<.001$. Comparison of the means for the females found that for self-motivation and empathic concern there was a decrease in self-perceived abilities for these constructs for both the intervention and control groups. This suggests that females' scores lower for these constructs regardless of participation in the intervention.

Finally, the mixed ANOVA analysis indicated a significant interaction for the adaptability scale: $F(1, 30) = 4.67$, $p<.05$ for the female participants. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the adaptability scores between the females for the intervention and control groups. There were no significant differences in scores between the two groups at baseline pre-test, however, a significant difference between the groups at post-testing $t(30) = 2.46$, $p<.05$); intervention ($M=29.4$, $SD=6.4$) and control group ($M=33.9$, $SD=3.4$); (all F ratios arising from the TEIque-CF two way ANOVA's for gender can be seen in Appendix 8). This identifies the females in the control group increased in their adaptability ability at Time 2.

EI and academic achievement

The relationship between final Year 7 English and Maths grades and the dependent variables were investigated. The analysis used was the Pearson's *r* or Spearman's Rho as appropriate. The analysis revealed that final Year 7 English grades were positively correlated with higher scores in Athletic Competence $r_s(60) = .273$, $p<.05$ and Global Self-worth $r_s(60) = .283$, $p<.05$. This suggests that pupils who had a higher athletic competence and global self-worth score achieved better academically in English (see table 10 and table 11 for correlation scores of English and Maths grades with all dependent variables). No significant relationships were identified between any other subscale and final Year 7 English and Maths results.

Subsequently, the results were then analysed with regard to 'high/low' academic performers for Maths and English (mean +/- 1). This allowed an exploration of whether EI scores were associated with 'high' or 'low' academic achievers. The academic differentiation was determined by calculating the median English and Maths scores (Grade 2S) from all the participants. The pupils who scored a grade 2S or above in their English or Maths Key Stage 3 were classified as high, and those who scored 2W or below were classified as low (for a classification of the new 2017 Key Stage 3 scores see Appendix 13).

A Spearman's rank order correlation found that there was a strong, positive correlation between low Maths achievers and the fantasy scale; $r_s(17) = .596$, $p<.05$ and personal distress scale; $r_s(17) = .512$, $p<.05$, which were both statistically significant. Pupils who achieved lower Maths scores experienced higher levels of personal distress and fantasised more than pupils who achieved higher Maths scores. Surprisingly, high Maths achievers were only positively correlated with athletic competence; $r_s(43) = .362$, $p<.05$ (see table 11 for correlation scores of Maths grades with all dependent variables).

On the other hand, the Spearman's Rho indicated that there was a positive correlation between low English scorers with low impulsivity $r_s(25) = -.481$, $p<.05$ and emotional regulation $r_s(25) = -.441$, $p<.05$. This may suggest that pupils who have low impulsivity and are unable to regulate their emotions score lower in English. However, high English performers were strongly correlated with the fantasy scale; $r_s(35) = -.425$, $p<.05$ (see table 10 for correlation scores of English grades with all dependent variables).

Furthermore, end of Key Stage 2 (Year 6) English grades were also positively correlated with end of Year 7 English grades r(60) =.493, p<.001 and similarly end of Year 6 Maths grades were positively correlated with end of year 7 Maths grades r(60) =.493, p<.001. This suggests that prior performance in primary school may suggest a significant amount of variance in secondary school performance.

Interestingly, attendance did not significantly correlate with academic achievement in Maths (r(60) =.387, p>.05) or English (r(60) =.293, p>.05) this study.

Construct	Overall English Grades Correlation	High English Performers Correlation	Low English Performers Correlation
Scholastic competence	$r_s(60)$ =.137, p=.297	$r_s(35)$=.087, p=.621	$r_s(25)$=.154, p=.461
Social competence	$r_s(60)$ =.064, p=.626	$r_s(35)$=.227, p=.190	$r_s(25)$=.256, p=.217
Athletic competence	$r_s(60)$ =.273, p=.035	$r_s(35)$=.258, p=.134	$r_s(25)$=.018, p=.933
Physical appearance	$r_s(60)$ =.249, p=.055	$r_s(35)$=.242, p=.162	$r_s(25)$=-.210, p=.313
Behavioural conduct	$r_s(60)$ =.239, p=.066	$r_s(35)$=-.080, p=.647	$r_s(25)$=.237, p=.254
Global self-worth	$r_s(60)$ =.283, p=.028	$r_s(35)$=.009, p=.958	$r_s(25)$=.282, p=.172
Perspective taking	$r_s(60)$ =.077, p=.560	$r_s(35)$=-.137, p=.434	$r_s(25)$=.097, p=.644
Fantasy	$r_s(60)$ =.022, p=.869	$r_s(35)$=-.425, p=.011	$r_s(25)$=.187, p=.371
Empathic concern	$r_s(60)$ =.149, p=.255	$r_s(35)$=-.227, p=.190	$r_s(25)$=.081, p=.700
Personal distress	$r_s(60)$ =.239, p=.066	$r_s(35)$=-.066, p=.705	$r_s(25)$=.037, p=.860
Adaptability	$r_s(60)$ =-.021, p=.876	$r_s(35)$=.077, p=.661	$r_s(25)$=.032, p=.878
Emotional expression	$r_s(60)$ =.125, p=.341	$r_s(35)$=.156, p=.372	$r_s(25)$=.059, p=.778
Emotional perception	$r_s(60)$ =-.025, p=.847	$r_s(35)$=.083, p=.634	$r_s(25)$=-.085, p=.687

Self-motivation	$r_s(60)$ =.046, p=.728	$r_s(35)$=-.107, p=.540	$r_s(25)$=-.142, p=.499
Self-esteem	$r_s(60)$ =-.060, p=.648	$r_s(35)$=-.060, p=.731	$r_s(25)$=.029, p=.891
Low impulsivity	$r_s(60)$ =.014, p=.914	$r_s(35)$=-.141, p=.420	$r_s(25)$=-.481, p=.015
Peer relations	$r_s(60)$ =-.053, p=.690	$r_s(35)$=.128, p=.462	$r_s(25)$=-.201, p=.336
Emotional regulation	$r_s(60)$ =-.101, p=.441	$r_s(35)$=-.079, p=.651	$r_s(25)$=-.441, p=.027
Affective disposition	$r_s(60)$ =-.186, p=.156	$r_s(35)$=.060, p=.730	$r_s(25)$=.247, p=.233
Overall EI	$r_s(60)$ =-.067, p=.612	$r_s(35)$=.046, p=.384	$r_s(25)$=.493, p=.212

Table 10: Correlation scores of English grades with dependent variables

Construct	Overall Maths Grades Correlation	High Maths Performers Correlation	Low Maths Performers Correlation
Scholastic competence	$r_s(60)$ =.024, p=.857	$r_s(43)$ =.015, p=.922	$r_s(17)$=-.005, p=.984
Social competence	$r_s(60)$ =.132, p=.313	$r_s(43)$ =.154, p=.324	$r_s(17)$=-.265, p=.304
Athletic competence	$r_s(60)$ =.186, p=.156	$r_s(43)$= .362, p=.017	$r_s(17)$=-.359, p=.157
Physical appearance	$r_s(60)$ =-.026, p=.843	$r_s(43)$ =.079, p=.614	$r_s(17)$=-.265, p=.304
Behavioural conduct	$r_s(60)$ =.177, p=.176	$r_s(43)$ =.107, p=.497	$r_s(17)$ =.080, p=.760
Global self-worth	$r_s(60)$ =.131, p=.318	$r_s(43)$ =.182, p=.244	$r_s(17)$ =.056, p=.832
Perspective taking	$r_s(60)$ =.047, p=.723	$r_s(43)$ =.012, p=.939	$r_s(17)$ =.212, p=.414
Fantasy	$r_s(60)$ =.076, p=.565	$r_s(43)$ =.140, p=.369	$r_s(17)$= .596, p=.012
Empathic concern	$r_s(60)$ =.042, p=.723	$r_s(43)$ =.149, p=.340	$r_s(17)$ =.252, p=.330
Personal distress	$r_s(60)$ =-.129, p=.327	$r_s(43)$ =.001, p=.995	$r_s(17)$= .512, p=.035
Adaptability	$r_s(60)$ =-.030, p=.817	$r_s(43)$ =.005, p=.974	$r_s(17)$ =.044, p=.866
Emotional expression	$r_s(60)$ =-.043, p=.746	$r_s(43)$ =.106, p=.498	$r_s(17)$=-.005, p=.984
Emotional perception	$r_s(60)$ =-.041, p=.755	$r_s(43)$ =.005, p=.972	$r_s(17)$ =.018, p=.945

Self-motivation	$r_s(60) = .057, p = .664$	$r_s(43) = .084, p = .590$	$r_s(17) = .119, p = .649$
Self-esteem	$r_s(60) = .028, p = .830$	$r_s(43) = -.054, p = .730$	$r_s(17) = .225, p = .384$
Low impulsivity	$r_s(60) = .008, p = .951$	$r_s(43) = .135, p = .389$	$r_s(17) = -.154, p = .556$
Peer relations	$r_s(60) = -.147, p = .261$	$r_s(43) = -.067, p = .668$	$r_s(17) = -.084, p = .749$
Emotional regulation	$r_s(60) = .053, p = .688$	$r_s(43) = -.031, p = .846$	$r_s(17) = .251, p = .331$
Affective disposition	$r_s(60) = .105, p = .427$	$r_s(43) = .053, p = .736$	$r_s(17) = -.109, p = .676$
Overall EI	$r_s(60) = -.015, p = .911$	$r_s(43) = .138, p = .349$	$r_s(17) = .024, p = .857$

Table 11: Correlation scores of Maths grades with dependent variables

When gender was accounted for, and male and female data analysed separately, results suggested that girls outperformed males academically in Year 7 in English and Maths regardless of control and intervention group. This study went on to explore whether the relationships were different for males and females. For males, there was a statistically significant correlation found between English grades and emotional regulation scores $r(28) = -.366$, $p < .05$. For females however, there was a strong, positive correlation which was statistically significant between English scores and scholastic competence $r(32) = .493$, $p < .001$, athletic competence $r(32) = .380$, $p < .05$, personal distress scores $r(32) = .343$, $p < .05$ and behavioural conduct $r(32) = .374$, $p < .05$. This, along with all the results will be further examined in the discussion section, where the aims of the study will be discussed in relation to the current findings and previous literature in the field. Methodological issues will be revisited, and implications for practice and future directions will be considered.

	Control (n=30)	Intervention (n=30)	Control (n=30)	Intervention (n=30)

	Pre-test Control (n=30)		Pre-test Intervention (n=30		Post-test Control (n=30)		Post-test Intervention (n=30)	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Adaptability	30.4	5.8	31.3	5.5	29.5	5.2	30.4	4.7
Emotional Expression	25.9	2.7	24.8	3.9	27.3	4.7	26.9	5.5
Emotional Perception	26.5	4.5	27.6	5.8	26.6	5.0	26.3	4.5
Self-Motivation	28.7	4.4	29.9	4.2	28.9	7.1	28.0	5.4
Self-esteem	22.7	3.7	23.5	3.9	21.1	4.0	21.9	2.6
Low Impulsivity	18.6	4.5	18.0	3.8	18.1	3.9	19.0	3.7
Peer Relations	34.7	4.5	34.8	5.2	33.0	5.8	33.1	4.9
Emotional Regulation	28.7	3.1	30.0	5.0	29.8	5.8	28.8	4.6
Affective Disposition	32.5	5.5	29.1	6.3	33.5	4.9	32.4	5.7
Overall EI	3.31	0.3	3.32	0.4	3.3	0.5	3.26	0.3

	Pre-test Control (n=30)		Pre-test Intervention (n=30		Post-test Control (n=30)		Post-test Intervention (n=30)	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Adaptability	32.3	6.1	31.7	6.3	33.9	3.4	29.4	6.4
Emotional Expression	29	5.4	29.1	5.9	28.3	5.9	25.7	4.2
Emotional Perception	29.1	5.5	27.8	5.0	28.5	5.1	27.5	3.8
Self-Motivation	32.6	4.2	30.9	5.1	32.5	3.9	27.8	4.5
Self-esteem	21.9	5.9	18.8	4.6	22.1	6.6	21.2	4.3
Low Impulsivity	21.5	5.2	18.3	4.6	21.8	5.8	20.5	4.6
Peer Relations	36.7	6.1	33.5	6.3	34.8	5.6	32.4	5.7
Emotional Regulation	31.4	5.2	29.5	4.2	33.5	4.3	32.2	6.3
Affective Disposition	33.7	6.4	29.9	6.0	33.2	6.5	31.5	6.3
Overall EI	3.58	0.5	3.31	0.4	3.57	0.4	3.31	0.4

Table 12: Means table for Male TEIQue-CF

Table 13: Means table for Female TEIQue-CF

	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)	
	Pre-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Post-test	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Scholastic Competence	16.2	3.4	15.4	2.7	15.4	4.6	14.8	4.0
Social Competence	17.6	4.5	17.9	3.6	16.6	4.2	15.8	2.9
Athletic Competence	15.3	2.7	16.9	4.0	15.7	4.6	17.7	3.3
Physical Appearance	15.1	5.5	15.8	3.7	15.6	4.8	15.2	3.2
Behavioural Conduct	16.3	4.4	15.1	3.4	17.1	4.9	16.2	3.1
Global Self Worth	17.2	4.4	16.2	5.0	17.3	3.8	15.5	3.7

	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)	

	Pre-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Post-test	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Scholastic Competence	16.8	4.7	14.8	3.2	17.3	3.9	16.8	4.1
Social Competence	17.7	4.8	15.1	4.0	17.5	4.4	15.8	4.7
Athletic Competence	16.7	4.7	14.9	4.9	17.9	4.3	16.3	4.5
Physical Appearance	16.3	5.1	12.4	4.8	15.7	4.9	14.2	5.6
Behavioural Conduct	18.2	3.9	18.1	2.2	19.7	3.4	18.8	3.7
Global Self Worth	17.1	3.7	15.7	4.6	18.4	3.8	16.2	4.7

Table 14: Means table for male SPPC

Table 15: Means table for female SPPC

	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)	
	Pre-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Post-test	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Perspective Taking	12.6	5.2	13.4	3.6	13.1	6.3	14.8	3.1
Fantasy Scale	12.7	5.4	13.1	4.1	13.2	4.8	13.3	6.2
Empathic Concern	15.6	4.6	17.7	4.1	18.6	5.2	14.5	3.5
Personal Distress Scale	11.2	4.7	10.2	5.2	12.7	4.7	11.1	4.9

Table 16: Means table for Male IRI

	Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)		Control (n=30)		Intervention (n=30)	
	Pre-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Post-test	
Sub-Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Perspective Taking	16.7	4.6	14.5	14.0	15.6	3.7	16.4	3.9
Fantasy Scale	14.3	4.3	17.9	5.9	14.5	4.8	16.8	7.4
Empathic Concern	17.3	3.6	22.2	3.5	17.1	3.4	20.8	3.9
Personal Distress Scale	11.5	3.9	15.2	6.4	11.2	3.0	11.9	5.1

Table 17: Means table for Female IRI

5.9. Discussion of Findings from Study 2

The main aim of this study was to investigate the social and emotional learning of Year 7 pupils before and after they had participated in an intervention programme; a programme that was school specific (personalised by the findings of Study 1) to focus on the development of self-awareness and empathy skills. To this end, sixty Year 7 pupils were selected by the Head of Year to participate in either the control or intervention group. The analysis indicated a significant increase in affective disposition for the intervention group, but not for the control group. It appears that though the intervention group began with a lower score than the control group, which may have affected the significance of the main effects, the results show that the intervention programme helped raise the lower affective disposition scores of the pupils. This coincides with Qualters' study (2012) which demonstrated that participants with lower EI scores benefitted most in such directed

programmes. Moreover, it can be seen that there were significant differences for the two time periods for the behavioural conduct construct with all participants improving their behaviour from Time 1 to Time 2. It would be imprudent to draw conclusions because it has to be recognised that behaviour is extrinsically subject to changes as most schools naturally deal with behaviour as part of a wider school improvement strategy (Ofsted, 2006).

A significant interaction was found for the empathic subscale which showed a decrease in the scores for the intervention group. This may suggest that participants of the intervention group perceived themselves as being less empathetic, post-intervention compared with the control group. As this is a single score, it would be pretentious to offer a conclusion other than the suggestion to investigate further emotional responses similar to empathy.

Moreover, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for the intervention effects on academic grades; however, the analysis revealed that final Year 7 English grades were positively correlated with higher scores in some self-perception constructs; athletic competence and global self-worth. This suggests that pupils who have a higher athletic competence and global self-worth score achieved better academically in English. Similarly, this study found that previous academic grades were seen to be correlated with current academic performance as found by previous studies (Elias & MacDonald, 2007).

This study has potential implications for educational programmes focusing on developing pupils social and emotional abilities. Such programmes appear to be beneficial in developing certain aspects of EI, but additional examination is needed to completely understand it's potential and utilise initiatives in the most effective and meaning way. Furthermore, academic performance does seem to have correlations with some EI constructs, and so educators and policymakers should incorporate aspects of social and emotional learning into the academic context. Thus, while it remains to be fully explored, some of the implications suggest initiatives designed to develop social and emotional abilities as part of a holistic learning experience can possibly benefit pupils if prior exploratory research is undertaken.

The EI intervention programme was developed for secondary school pupils based on the qualitative findings from Study 1. It was designed and implemented as a programme aimed at developing pupils' ability to face challenges and make decisions by enhancing their self-

awareness and positive self-perceptions, and effective thought patterns and understanding of empathy.

The research question for Study 2 was "*Will Year 7 pupils EI and academic scores improve as a result of participating in an EI intervention programme?"* which was further broken down into three hypotheses which will now be discussed.

The first hypothesis was "Pupils in the emotional intelligence intervention will exhibit an improved EI score (at Time 2)". The experimental hypothesis appeared to have face validity given the literature review withprevious studies illustrating that EI interventions can produce positive outcomes for participants (Humphrey et al., 2008; Humphery et al., 2010; Russo et al., 2012; Mestre et al., 2006; Shields & Cicchetti, 1998). This study intended to build on the current evidence base, examining the effectiveness of an EI intervention programme deriving a context-specific focus (Study 1) conducted in a UK educational setting with Year 7 pupils.

The experimental hypothesis (as opposed to the null hypothesis) would be for the intervention group and the control group to have similar pre-test scores, but for the intervention group to outperform the control group at post-test. This did not happen in the current study for overall EI or the majority of the individual EI sub-constructs, but the intervention group did make gains over the control group for certain constructs which will now be discussed.

At pre-test, there were no statistically significant differences between the intervention and control groups except for empathic concern and affective disposition. With regard to affective disposition, the control group had significantly higher scores than the intervention group at pre-test, however, at post-test, there were no significant differences between the intervention and the control group. Interpretation of this result could be that the intervention led the intervention groups' scores to improve, indicating that the intervention had an enhancing effect on affective disposition. This coincides with Qualters' study (2012) which demonstrated that participants with lower EI scores benefitted more in such directed programmes than participants with high EI baseline scores. As for empathic concern, the intervention group had a significantly higher score than the control group for self-rated

empathic concern; however, for post-test, there were no significant differences. Closer examination of the results shows that the control groups' scores improved whilst the intervention groups scores declined over the same period. This could indicate that the intervention group declined in empathy post-intervention; however, the researcher proposes a possible explanation. Weaknesses of self-report measures were discussed in the literature review and include disadvantages such as social desirability bias and over-exaggeration of answers and thus, this result could be interpreted in a way that the intervention group over-rated their empathy scores pre-intervention. As the intervention was focused on empathy and empathetic skills, the intervention group possible developed their understanding of empathy and therefore, the Time 2 scores represent a better understanding and awareness of empathy for the intervention group, corresponding to that of the control group. Research has found that empathy can be developed in adolescents (Feshbach, 1983; Feshbach & Cohen, 1988; Hatcher et al., 1994) and moreover, this explanation seems more suitable taking into consideration the increase in all empathy constructs for both intervention and control group at Time 3 (discussed below).

Outcomes from the intervention group did not produce any other statistically significant EI improvements at Time 2 compared to the control group participants. Therefore, results from the study did not produce enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

For the intervention group, scores from pre- to post-test revealed statistically significant improvements for the intervention group participants in self-reported behavioural conduct. This suggests a positive change in perceived behaviour post-intervention which is in line with past research (Hemphill & Littlefield, 2006; Squires, 2001; Sukhodolsky et aI., 2004). This would have been a notable result this study had the control group scores remained similar from pre- to post-test. However, the control group also made gains on self-reported behavioural conduct and thus, it appears that all the participant's' self-reported behavioural conduct enhanced. This, therefore, cannot be associated to the intervention, but could possibly be due to the overall increased exposure of the pupils to more stringent classroom discipline and behavioural management techniques of the teachers which are experienced during the first year of secondary school (Burke & Paternite, 2007; Cantin, 2004).

Although gender differences were not the primary focus of this study (in part because of the small sample size), gender was accounted for to examine the impact of the intervention. Overall EI scores were higher for females than males at both pre-test and post-test irrespective of intervention or control group. This has been highly covered in the literature which identifies girls as having higher emotional abilities than boys (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Thompson & Voyer, 2014; Christov-Moore et al., 2014; Baron-Cohen, 2004). However, previous research has also shown that in terms of overall EI males and females do not seem to differ (Bar-On, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003).

For girls in this study, a significant improvement was found in emotional regulation, athletic competence, and behavioural conduct and also a decrease in their levels of personal distress, while the findings suggest that boys in the intervention group did not make any significant gains. This is supported in the literature which found that females to be more emotionally competent than males (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Eagly et al., 2014; Snowden et al., 2015) and better behaved than boys as reported by teachers (Entwisle et al., 2007; Francis, 2000; Whitmore, 2005). Again, this would have been a positive result for the girls in the intervention had the control group scores remained similar from pre- to post-test. However, the girls in the control group also made gains on the same skills between the two time periods. This indicates that overall girls are developing at a faster rate than boys regardless of the intervention. This is supported by previous research that has found that interventions have proven more successful with girls than boys (Kazdin & Crowley, 1997; Sukhodolsky et aI., 2004; Day & Carroll, 2004; Mayer et al., 1999; Schutte et al., 1998). Even though it is not in the scope of this discussion to explore this in detail, the gender differences could be due to girls being more resilient and motivated at schools than boys (Britner, 2008; Meece et al., 2006). This could be exasperated by the negative outlook and lower aspirations boys have at school (Archer et al., 2014; Jones & Myhill, 2004) to name a few. Nevertheless, previous literature remains inconsistent regarding gender and gender cannot be considered a significant moderator for EI or academic performance as a result of the limited sample sizes of girls involved in the previous research (Bennett & Gibbons, 2000).

The second hypothesis in Study 2 focused on Time 3; the 8-month follow-up data hypothesising "*The effects of an EI development programme will be maintained on EI and empathy after an 8-month follow-up evaluation*". Previous research has shown that interventions can have a positive long-term impact, with research showing improved outcomes being maintained at follow-up (Deffenbacher et al., 2000). From the analysis of Time 2 and Time 3 scores, it was found that the scores for the intervention group for empathic concern (which saw a decrease from pre-test to post-test) improved significantly from post-test to follow-up. Nonetheless, it was found that all sub-constructs for empathy improved for all participants from post-test to follow up regardless of the intervention, indicating an increase in pupils' empathy levels over time. This suggests that empathetic skills and understanding develop with age which is supported by previous research (Bjorkqvist et al., 2000; Miller & Eisenber, 1988; Strayer & Roberts, 1997). With regard to the participants' EI follow-up scores, behavioural conduct and self-motivation scores were maintained from post-test to follow-up for the intervention group. Specific to this study on Year 7 and secondary school transition, it could imply that as pupils progress through Year 7 and become more familiar with their settings and achieve a better sense of belonging, their understanding of peers, teachers and surroundings also increase. This could provide useful insight for school teachers and schools in general as antisocial behaviour is a persistent and visible problem for adolescents making the transition to secondary school (Pellegrini & Long, 2002). Schools could focus on providing additional support to disruptive pupils throughout the transition period with the expectation of assimilating the pupils into the school context over time.

The third hypothesis in Study 2 was *"End of year academic results will improve after participation in an emotional learning intervention programme for those in the EI intervention group."* A positive relationship between EI and academic achievement was found in the literature (see 2.6.2) (Abdullah et al., 2004; Parker et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 1998). However, this was not the case in this study as no significant improvements were found in academic results and so the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

When relationships between academic grades and EI scores were investigated, it was found that English grades positively correlated with higher scores in athletic competence and

global self-worth. This is provisionally supported by previous research which shows self-worth as a significant predictor of academic performance (Wong & Law, 2002) and it warrants further empirical attention, particularly as Bar-On and Parker (2000) argue that self-worth underpins core EI competencies such as self-awareness, self-confidence, and self-management. Correspondingly, Qualter (2012) in his study of EI on secondary school pupils argued that scholastic and social self-worth are most likely to protect against the academic and social challenges that young adolescents face during the transfer to secondary school. Similarly, it is pertinent to consider the association between self-worth in certain subject areas and the link and academic improvement with it in other subject areas, for example as in the case of this study competence in English correlated with perceived competence in Sports (athletic competence). This could warrant schools and interventions to focus on self-esteem and self-efficacy as a whole which previous research has found to be positively correlated with academic performance (Lane & Lane, 2001; Carter et al., 2008; Lane, 2004).

Academic performance was then split to explore whether EI scores were associated with 'high' or 'low' academic achievers. Low maths scorers were positively correlated with the fantasy and personal distress scales.This suggests that pupils who achieved lower Maths scores experienced higher levels of personal distress and fantasised more than pupils who achieved higher Maths scores. High maths scorers, however, correlated positively with athletic competence. Conversely, low English scorers correlated with low impulsivity and emotional regulation, suggesting that pupils who achieved low English scores had better control and could regulate their emotions. Nevertheless, high English performers were strongly correlated with the fantasy scale. No speculations can be made at present as to what led to these outcomes. However, it could bring into question the reliability and validity of the measures used.

5.10. Strengths, Limitations, and Implications for Future Research

The suitability of the methodology used in this study to address the research questions will now be discussed. Key issues regarding the current design will be explored and evaluated. This will consist of issues related to intervention duration, treatment drift, treatment

contamination, testing, researcher effects and sample size as the researcher believes these factors require specific investigation and discussion.

Measures

A limitation of the research could be the use of self-report measures, rather than explicit measures of behaviour (for instance, observations after the intervention), as explicit measures are believed by some to be more objective (Gonyea, 2005). However, direct measures were not employed in this study as they are not time-efficient or related to trait EI, and research can never be truly objective with the use of human participants (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Willig, 2013) (Chapter 3). In addition, direct measures (role play) were employed in a study by Humphrey et al., (2008) using case study schools and no effects were found.

Effects on Internal validity

Intervention Duration

It is possible that an intervention may not enhance EI when implemented over six sessions with a population of recently transitioned secondary school pupil's context. Though positive results have been found with interventions with similar time frames (Selligman, 2011; Brandon & Cunningham, 1999), these findings were with a younger population, which could suggest that the biological, cognitive, social and emotional difficulties adolescents face during the secondary school transition may necessitate additional time to enhance EI. This investigation was limited to the timescale of the school's calendar year, resulting in the intervention workshops being limited to forty minute sessions running for a total of six weeks. Timetabling issues coupled with the requirement of finishing the research in accordance with the researcher's doctoral programme was the reason a longer intervention was not possible.

Treatment Drift

The current study ran for nearly a complete calendar year. The follow-up with the intervention participants was conducted after the summer holidays when the participants had moved to Year 8, and so it was felt that a significant amount of time had passed from

undertaking the intervention and gathering views on the efficacy of the programme. It would have been ideal to conduct the follow-up within a shorter time period after the interventions, but due to exam periods and school activities, this was not possible. Therefore, it is important to consider the issue of treatment drift and how the participants' perceptions of the application and delivery of the intervention may have changed over time and how this may have impacted upon the findings.

Treatment contamination

The two groups (control and intervention) used in this study were located in the same school and were together for the whole time of the intervention. The researcher had limited contact with the participants as he was only with the participants during the sessions, and so it cannot be guaranteed if the participants discussed the content of the intervention with pupils outside of the intervention group. Moreover, the class teacher reported that many pupils from the control group asked if they would receive the intervention, as they had heard it was "good." Thus, consideration must be given to the contamination of the intervention and the control groups' desire to participate in the intervention as possibly impacting the control group's answers in the post-surveys. These points emphasise the limitations of implementing stringent experimental conditions in a real world educational environment for post-positivist research.

Testing

Testing alludes to the participants' familiarity with the measures that could impact their responses at post-intervention and follow-up time points *"merely repeating the assessments without an intervention, can significantly improve measures"* (Kazdin 2011, p. 26). In the present study, descriptive statistics revealed some instances where both the intervention and the control group increased from pre- to post-testing, yet the findings were not statistically significant. Therefore, testing as a possible limitation to the validity of the study design must be considered.

Researcher Expectancy Effects

All sessions were delivered by the researcher, and thus the impact of researcher bias must be acknowledged. Literature expresses how the implicit beliefs of the researcher and

expected outcomes of the study could unintentionally impact the participants' performance. Nevertheless, research into the influence of researcher bias implies *"the pervasiveness of this influence among different areas of research is not known (and) how experimenter expectancies exert their influence is unclear"* (Kazdin 2003, p.88).

Sample Size

Limited sample size may also impact the internal validity of the present study. The sample size in this study was much smaller than initially expected, leading to considerations of using larger sample sizes for experimental research. This was constrained due to the resources available for a single doctoral pupil while recruiting a bigger sample and possibly utilising extra schools and participants could have been feasible with extra resources and personnel. Nevertheless, whilst ascertaining a suitable sample size to create statistical power is important for a study, as this was an exploratory research with a focus on context specificity richer, in-depth data was established in the other studies of this research (Study 1 and 3) to counteract the limited sample size in this study.

External Validity

The ability to generalise to the wider population refers to external validity (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013). This study explored the efficacy of an intervention in with Year 7 pupils, and thus, the sample population, the justification of the intervention and the geographical context should all be considered when attempting to generalise the outcomes to a wider setting. The rationale of the present study was underlined in the literature review; the lack of mixed methods research into the impact of an EI intervention with recently transitioned Year 7 secondary school pupils within the UK. This study, therefore, represents one attempt to address the deficits in previous research.

In particular, a school from a specific region within the UK was used; all participants were aged between 11 and 12 years and attended the same secondary school. Above all, a primary goal of the study was to examine a personalised context specific intervention, which ultimately will limit the generality of any study. These issues will impact the generalisability of these inferences to alternative settings or participants, and therefore, future research

should attempt to replicate the present study with other participants to extend the knowledge and understanding of context-specific personalised bespoke interventions.

The selection-intervention interaction can also affect external validity. This is the possibility that the selected participants may impact the results, which may suggest that the outcomes of the intervention cannot be generalised to a different context. Even though the pupils for the intervention and control classes were selected from the same school with similar academic levels, the pupils in the classes will have vastly different life experiences which will undoubtedly impact their outlook on life and school. Moreover, it is suggested that schools that consent to participate in educational research are not representative, have a likelihood of better staff morale, lower fear of inspection and more zealous than other schools (Bryk et al., 2015). Similarly, Mertens and McLaughlin (2004) suggest that findings beyond the sample are impacted when random sampling has not occurred. This is certainly pertinent to the current study. Convenience sampling was used for practical reasons, which may result in a lack of generalisability as participants may not reflect the wider population. Similarly, another limitation concerns the differences between the two groups of participants in the study. Participants in the pre- and post-tests intervention and control group were not identical (even though close similarities between the groups were sought), which may have distorted the outcomes. Exploring emotional intelligence with pupils with even closer socio-emotional and academic characteristics could possibly reveal more reliable results, yet, in any 'real world' study this will always be a challenge (Patton, 2002).

Despite the outcomes of this study not supporting the high correlations and predictions of previous studies, further research is needed to demonstrate whether intervention programmes can enhance emotional intelligence in adolescents. This study developed from the sincere desire that is rooted in the entire thesis, to add to a robust evidence-base and emerging 'science' of EI, a concept others are likewise attempting to develop (Zeidner et al., 2009).

Chapter 6 - Study 3 – Pupils' perceptions: an insiders' perspectives on an EI intervention and transition to secondary school

6.1. Introduction

The central focus of the thesis took a quasi-experimental design approach (Study 2) to test a theory within one school (controlling for school differences). The influence of the school perspective was considered in order to understand the educational context and gain an understanding of the reality in which EI exists in school. Interviews with teaching staff and observations of the classroom (Study 1) provided an understanding of the setting and subsequently generate a focus for an EI intervention. The bespoke intervention centred on enhancing self-awareness and empathy in Year 7 pupils in relation to academic performance and a programme was developed and delivered to the pupils which produced inconclusive findings (Study 2).

Beyond the empirical data (Study 2) a need exists to capture a deeper, more personalised understanding of the EI intervention and the secondary school transfer. As educational transitions and moreover, educational support programmes are developmental processes with complex humanistic elements (e.g. experienced by teachers and pupils; involving different human relationships) it was felt to be imperative to triangulate the data gathered from Study 1 and Study 2 to explore pupils' individual, inner experiences, and subjective viewpoints. Study 3 was broken down into two parts; firstly, participants' experiences and insight of the EI intervention were explored (Study 3a). Secondly, the transition and the role of EI in an educational setting from the perspective of pupils was investigated with a separate group of New Year 7 pupils, external from any contact with the previous studies in this research (Study 3b).

As mentioned previously, consideration was given to the importance of gaining the perspectives and understanding of pupils prior to the intervention. However, as this research was carried out in one location, it was conducted in its present format to avoid contamination and thus deemed appropriate to gain pupils' viewpoints regarding EI and transfer after the intervention.

6.2. Study 3a

6.2.1. Introduction - Participant's views of intervention programmes

The United Nations Children's Rights Convention consists of statements that highlight the importance of children's view with regards to the issues affecting them. According to Article 12 '*parties will allow children with the capacity to form their own perception the full right to express those views based on all matters affecting children; those views should be prioritized in due weight with regards to the age and maturity of the child'* (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1990). Growing attention has been directed to the essence of eliciting children's view within the educational psychology practice and in research with children. Predominantly quantitative methods are applied by researchers exploring the effectiveness of interventions where randomised controlled trials are given the highest status (Wells et al., 2003; Schucksmith et al., 2007). The experiences of the participants in therapeutic interventions have received minimum attention while the investigation on the views of participants of such programmes was also limited. Self-report measures were primarily utilised by many studies; however, they were mostly inclined towards measuring the intervention results with structured questionnaires to assess behaviours, symptoms or other psychological constructs (Wells et al., 2003; Schucksmith et al., 2007).

Participants in intervention research are historically viewed as objects within the study instead of active participants who have the capacity to distinctively contribute to the research. Previous research has taken the view that the participants' views hold no significance or substance while measuring the outcomes. However, this study adopted the position that not only is investigation of individuals' experience of interventions relevant; it is essential. Using a mixed methods design in an intervention study, intervention studies can benefit from embedding a qualitative component within a primarily quantitative study in order to gain a fuller more complete picture and refine the intervention accordingly and thus allowing the participants to express their views on the intervention in addition to actively contributing to the research. Even though it is possible to depend on standardised self-report measures, evidence illustrates semi-structured interviews and focus groups as reliable methods of getting self-report of behavioural issues from children (Edwards &

Mercer, 2013). Additionally, it has been mentioned that such interviews have the capacity to demonstrate more precise information than standardised measures of behaviour (Nickerson & Coleman, 2006).

Including focus groups in this study is expected not only to give details of the participants' perception on the intervention but could also complement the quantitative data outcomes. Exploring the perception of participants through group discussions may also provide supplementary information which may draw attention to further potential areas of research.

6.2.2. Studies exploring participants' views post-intervention

The approach of exploring participants' views post-intervention is becoming more widespread. A summary will be presented of the research that has investigated participants' views of group-based interventions; however, a number of limitations are associated with such research including absence of control groups, small samples, and no follow-up data.

In a USA based study, Nickerson and Coleman (2006) used short interviews after an intervention on anger management with participants aged between ten and twelve years. According to the children's interviews, the children believed there was evidence of improvement in the ability to appropriately control anger, positive changes in how they carried themselves, development in getting connected with other individuals in the group and enjoyment with particular content within the intervention like role-playing. Similarly, a mixed methods research study was conducted by Humphrey and Brooks (2006) investigating a CBT group intervention for individuals aged between thirteen and fourteen years which ascertained the following themes from interviews post-intervention: the essence of sharing experiences such as feelings and thoughts with others, treatment readiness and aspects of power in school. In the UK, Dwivedi and Gupta (2000) conducted interviews with young individuals aged between thirteen and fourteen years after participation in an intervention aimed at lowering stress and anxiety and found positive comments regarding the sessions. Pupils indicated in their study how they benefited from listening to others; there was increased awareness regarding pupils' response to stress, improved ability to participate in groups and a decrease in their anxiety levels. According to some pupils, preference would

have been given to individual rather than group sessions. With such valuable information, there is opportunity to refine the intervention and guide other researchers and intervention programmes. This highlights the importance of ascertaining participants' perceptions of attending and participating in educational interventions. There clearly exists a need for a better understanding of how pupils experience school-based interventions so that their views can inform future intervention development, delivery, and evaluation. Therefore, Study 3a aimed to explore the pupils' understanding of their EI (post-intervention) and their perceptions of the interventions role in addressing and enhancing their EI.

6.2.3 Study 3a Method: Focus group and design of schedule

In this multi-method research design, as part of the second qualitative phase, qualitative feedback was gained from focus group discussions with participants to gain a broader, fuller picture of EI intervention programmes. The aim of the focus group with the intervention group participants was to further explore if the intervention programme was successful in terms of the application and effectiveness of the programme and moreover, the factors that influenced the success of the intervention. This was done to capture the pupils' viewpoint in their own words so that future programmes may be developed appropriately.

Focus groups are a form of group interviews which involves between five and twelve individuals. It enables comprehensive, reciprocal discussions amongst the participants around a common topic as planned by the researcher (De Ruyter, 1996). This allows for a collective view of many participants concerning a specific social experience capturing experiential data (Willig, 2013). The idea of researchers leading these discussions is perceived as both negative and positive. While participants' may engage in artificial social interaction in a manufactured setting, focus groups allow for efficient data collection of the topic at hand, acquiring perspectives to be extracted from participants which other approaches may not have been able to. Focus groups serve the purposes of generating hypotheses from the perspectives of group participants; gathering qualitative data including opinions, values, and attitudes; generating data at low costs and motivating participants to express themselves freely (Cohen, 2011):

Focus groups were preferred to interviews for a number of reasons. Group discussions based on the central topic are enabled through focus groups while contrasting views of participants are readily captured in a group discussion context. According to Willig (2013), focus groups challenge the participants to contribute and respond to the contributions of others. This provides statements that are qualified, developed, extended and challenged that can produce richer data. Semi-structured interviews may not readily provide such data. Moreover, focus groups allow for efficient data collection while gathering data using a series of interviews may be comparatively more labour intensive. Focus groups can be held in less artificial settings in comparison to formal interviews and are meant to offer an interaction opportunity similar to what would happen outside the research context which increases the validity of the data collected (Willig, 2013). Although group based discussions are viewed to be capable of generating a high volume of responses, it has been argued that focus groups may impede the exchange of viewpoints and could even cause the loss of opposing or minority perspectives (Gordon & Langmaid, 1988). This is in addition to some participants being potentially overshadowed by strong personalities and louder voices (De Ruyter, 1996).

In order to obtain as much salient information as possible, it was necessary to prepare focus group schedules carefully. The focus group was structured in terms of the specific areas originating from the specified aims of the study. The schedules were designed to incorporate open questions to allow participants to answer without undue direction from the researcher, on topics such as programme efficacy, positive and negative aspects of the intervention and recommendations for future programmes. This focus group was conducted 6-months after the completion of the intervention with pupils from the intervention group selected by the class tutor. The format of the focus group in Study 3a and 3b were similar whereby the pupils were read an information and consent sheet prior to the focus group reminding them of anonymity and their right to withdraw at any point before/during and after participation. Study 3a and 3b involved the pupils that provided parental consent in addition to their own consent for participation.

6.2.4. Study 3a participants and procedure

Eight pupils (males = 3; females = 5) selected by the class tutor from the EI intervention condition (now in Year 8) participated in the focus group to investigate the experiences and perceptions of the pupils with regards to the intervention.

The focus group was conducted by the author (who the pupils were already acquainted with following participation in the intervention) during a free period in the same room the intervention took place. The same room was chosen to help the pupils feel relaxed and comfortable when sharing their experiences. Ground rules were set before the commencement of the group discussion to provide safe, supportive and confidential boundaries to encourage everyone present to contribute to the discussion. The ground rules included: speak for yourself and not others, all contributions are to be accepted without criticism, and all comments remain confidential (See Appendix 11 for Study 3a focus group schedule). Participation in the focus group was voluntary, and participants were given the opportunity to refuse involvement and to stop and leave the focus group process at any time. An information sheet was given to the participants prior to the focus group an all participants were informed that the focus groups would remain confidential and would be anonymised during data analysis to protect their confidentiality further. The focus group lasted approximately 30 minutes.

6.2.5. Data Analysis

The focus group audio was digitally recorded and then transcribed to aid thorough analysis. The focus group data was analysed using the thematic analysis and framework illustrated by Braun and Clarke (2006) (detail of thematic analysis can be found in Study 1). In brief, the following six phases are included in thematic analysis: getting familiar with the data, creating initial codes, looking for themes, assessing themes, naming and defining themes and production of the report. The research questions guided refinement of the analysis so as to identify semantic and broad themes with participant responses and interpreting them in relation to the intervention programme. In-depth inferences and review of meaning with participants were not included in the broad analysis which may have impacted on the validity of the results. Such surface level analysis has been used in previous research to gauge post-intervention efficacy (Fox & Boulton, 2005; Ohl et al., 2008; Goalen, 2013) and

glean implicit instead of propositional knowledge when the primary focus of the study has been the educational programme.

6.2.6 Study 3a Results

Themes identified from the post-intervention focus groups

The themes derived from the discussions were driven by the data and resulted in the following four major themes; ways of addressing negative emotions, ways to cope with/manage problems and reactions (positive and negative) to the intervention (figure 12).

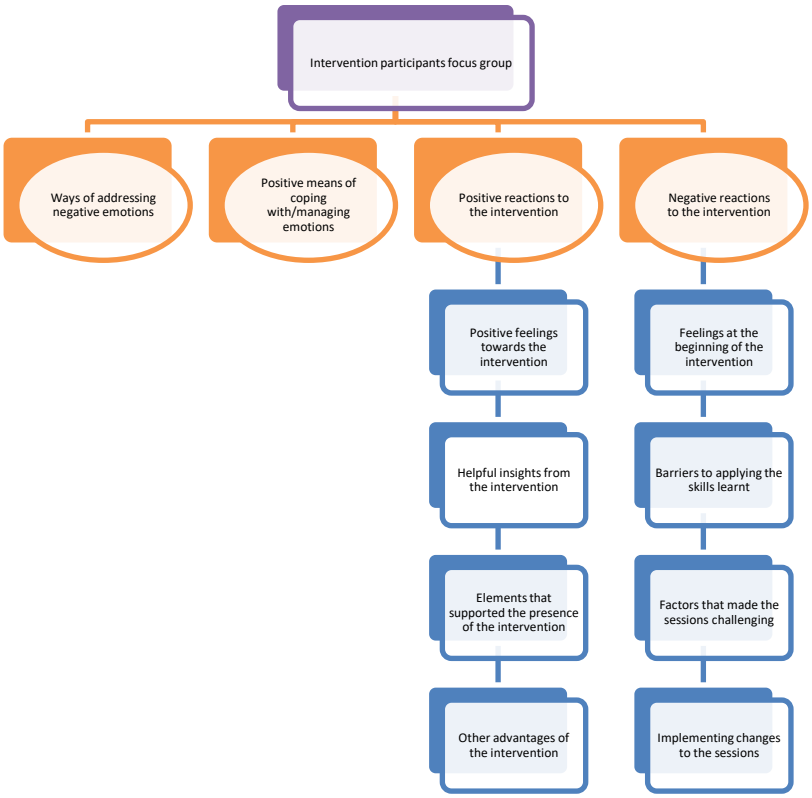

Figure 12: The major themes and sub-themes from the intervention participants' focus group

Ways of addressing negative emotions

Participants gave a description of their learning and their increased utilisation of a variety of proactive strategies made for addressing negative emotions after participating in the intervention.

While responding to question six, 'A*re there any different approaches you have used to manage your emotions*?' most of them *(n=5)* stated that the intervention enhanced their understanding of social support for dealing with different emotions post-intervention. Participant C mentioned:

'When you open up to someone, they could listen and give you advice,' while according to participant A: *'The teachers that I worked with…Because I didn't know, I assumed that they are…just an ordinary teacher, but I know now that I am free to approach them and talk to them'*, in addition to '*I understand now that I can talk to many more people*.'

The participants also stated the advantages of learning to slowly tackle their lack of self-confidence, worries, and concerns through a step-by-step approach after participating in the intervention. Although this was evident across a number of discussions during the focus group related to communication and teamwork, this represented a behaviourally oriented strategy addressed within the sessions (Sessions 3 and 5). It provided pupils with strategies to deal with negative emotions and thus, most likely a skill developed by the pupils through the intervention. This early intervention of training pupils to address and regulate negative emotions before or during the transition could be vital for secondary schools. Research has indicated that without early intervention, risk factors such as socio-emotional and behavioural problems in pupils could escalate leading to academic problems, poor grade retention, school drop-out and anti-social behaviour (Snyder, 2001). Supporting the pupils to manage negative emotions at the transition (when pupils' behaviour is believed to be malleable) could be constructive and cost-effective as a way to stop the movement from early conduct problems to later delinquency and academic failure (Reid, Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 2004). Participant E mentioned the importance of managing negative emotions:

'*If you or your friend has a worry or a problem, you can think how to make it better. You think of what needs to be done in to try and fix it*'. A number of participants admitted to using 'self-talk' after the intervention as a way of supporting themselves to continue during times of difficulties, and when they felt down, for instance, participant's D stated *'It makes you feel better in a certain way if you talk to yourself. It feels like you have said it out loud other than just in your head*'.

Ways to cope with/manage problems

Contrary to the first theme, the second theme described the 'positive' approaches to dealing with emotions. The difference between the two themes is that the former theme represented a manner of dealing with negative emotions, opposite to actively finding out ways to address the causes of negative emotions to decrease negative emotions in the future. It is essential to understand that these themes are defined as 'positive,' based on the current view of the author while others may differently interpret the themes in this category.

According to half the participants, they applied physical relaxation approaches after the intervention to deal with different emotions. For instance, participant E commented '*taking deep, long breathes*' helped when making any decisions. This is a suitable strategy based on guidance from the literature (Stallard et al., 2005) and it was also a skill that was introduced within the intervention (Session 6) and hence viewed as a contribution of the programme to enhance pupils' self-regulation. There were reports from two participants of using a number of substantial distraction strategies when others anger you, for instance, a comment from participant B showed that they '*use an iPad or something*', whilst another participant (A) said that '*you feel relaxed when you listen to some calm music so go and do that*'. These are strategies used by participants to contextualise their emotions and their trigger points which was the focus of session 2 in the programme and was also viewed as significant with reference to the current literature (Stallard et al., 2005).

Although not to a great extent, participants claimed to have started being involved in physical exercise as a way of coping with different emotions, for instance, participant C said that '*things like going jogging, going shopping, things that distract your mind from it and also things like physical exercise.'* This theme thus alludes to the importance of support programmes and transitional support to try and help pupils develop different strategies to cope with problems. This finding suggests schools and teachers could expose pupils to myriad different techniques of managing challenges whereby the pupils have a catalogue of options to select the most suitable and appropriate technique for them at the given time of need.

Positive responses to the intervention

Four sub-themes were ascertained which were associated to the theme of positive responses to the intervention (see figure 13). The sub-themes included: the positive feelings towards the intervention, helpful insights from the intervention, elements which supported the intervention and other advantages of the group intervention.

Figure 13: Positive responses to the intervention theme and sub-theme from Year 7 intervention participants' focus group

Positive feelings were expressed by all of the children towards the group and the sessions (table 18 illustrates some examples from the participants of positive feelings). This included the pupils admitting that they were happy with the group, whilst two of the pupils expressed a change in attitudes toward the sessions. Even though said pupils had first expressed concerns about the intervention, their perspective towards the group gradually changed since they now had positive perceptions regarding the group. Three of the pupils said that they never wanted the group to end.

Theme: Positive responses to the intervention	
Sub-theme: Positive feelings	
Positive reaction to the group	"I'd recommend to my friends and others because it was educational you can teach them to understand and control your emotions" (Participant E) "The classes were fun; I really liked them"
Change in feelings towards the sessions	"At the beginning, I didn't really like it because I didn't see the point of them, but now I think they're really good" (Participant D)
The desire for continuation	"I didn't know they would finish so quick. I want to keep doing them" (Participant G)

Table 18: Examples of data for positive feelings sub-themes

For the sub-theme of elements that supported the running of the sessions, participants identified different elements such as: empathy towards the group, reciprocated trust, support by others, rewards, being with friends, being offered a variety of activities and consistency of the researcher who implemented the sessions (table 19 illustrates some examples from the participants of elements which helped the running of the sessions' sub-theme). The participants highlighted mutual trust repeatedly as an initial element, and as such, half the pupils stated the necessity to trust others within the group and to trust that other pupils in the group would not 'reveal their secrets.'

Five of the pupils who participated in the programme mentioned developing empathy for other peers, displaying an understanding of the hardships their peers may have experienced (supporting the quantitative findings from Study 2). Three pupils also acknowledged the good feeling of doing the intervention with friends. The pupils also identified being rewarded and being offered a range of activities as another factor.

Theme: Positive responses to the intervention	
Sub-theme: Elements which helped the running of the sessions	
Reciprocated trust	"All my mates were in the class, and I know they ain't going to tell anyone" (Participant G)
Empathy	"It helped me understand about them because I know they have problems and I feel sorry for them" (Participant B)
Regularity	"I liked having you (the researcher) come in every week. I looked forward to tutor time because I knew you were coming at that time" (Participant A)
Being with friends	"It was good doing it with my mates because if they weren't there, I'd do it on my own and it wouldn't be as good" (Participant G)
Being rewarded	"I liked it when we got chocolates" (Participant C) "The best part of it was when we would get prizes and the chocolate" (Participant D)
Doing various tasks	"I liked it that we did something different from our normal classes and each week with you we did something different, so it wasn't boring and the same thing all the time (Participant A

Table 19: Examples of data for elements which helped the running of the sessions' sub-theme

For the sub-theme of beneficial ideas from the sessions (table 20 illustrates some examples from the participants of beneficial ideas for the sessions), five pupils claimed the intervention rules as something they appreciated and benefited from during the sessions. Additionally, seven out of the eight pupils also indicated that the group had allowed them to be conscious about their behaviours and the effects of their behaviours on themselves and others (validating the self-awareness and empathy focus of the intervention). According to the pupils, the opportunity to note things down was substantially helpful. Six pupils viewed the strategies they acquired during the interventions as useful skills in school-life and home-life, often specifying the strategies that would be applicable.

Theme: Positive responses to the intervention	
Sub-theme: Beneficial ideas from the sessions	
Rules	"Every week, you always talked about the rules. They're in my head now; put your hands up, listen when other talking, take turns…" (Participant D)
Taking notes	"When you write things down, you don't forget it, and you can remember what happened" (Participant C)
Strategies	"To put yourself in other people's shoes…. to talk to someone if you're upset or they are upset….to try and think about the future" (Participant G)

Table 20: Examples of data for beneficial ideas for the sessions' sub-theme

As well as the central focus of the intervention, several other advantages were mentioned by the pupils (table 21 illustrates some examples from the participants of additional advantages of the intervention). Some other benefits of the programme mentioned were: pupils beginning to realise that their peers also had feelings; pupils gaining a sense of belonging within the group; establishing new relationships and friendships within the group and benefitting from speaking out to others about their emotions. Five pupils stated that the group allowed them to personally connect with their peers and establish new and stronger friendships with the pupils in the group. One pupil mentioned that it was helpful to realise that other people also had confidence and communication issues.

Theme: Positive responses to the intervention	
Theme: Additional benefits of the intervention	
Realization of others feelings	"I know now that it isn't just me who sometimes doesn't have confidence and it makes me feel better" (Participant E)
Feeling of belonging	"It's nice to know that we're one group and only we've done it" (Participant G)
Making new friends	"We didn't know each other or like each other before, but now we're mates because we did this together" (Participant A)
Speaking out to others	"It was nice to talk to people and tell others about your feelings, so you don't have to keep it inside yourself all the time" (Participant B)

Table 21: Examples of data for additional advantages of the intervention sub-theme

Negative responses to the intervention

Four sub-themes were associated with the theme of negative responses to the intervention (see figure 14). These consisted of the feelings present at the beginning of the intervention, barriers to applying the skills learnt, factors which made the sessions challenging and implementing changes to the sessions.

Figure 14: Negative responses to the intervention theme and sub-theme from the intervention participants' focus group

For the sub-theme of challenging factors of the sessions (none of which were identified to the researcher during the intervention delivery), participants identified problems in the organization of the programme within the school, disorderly behaviour during the sessions, lack of trust between the members in the sessions and failure to receive assistance from outside the programme (table 22 illustrates some examples of the participants of factors which hindered the organisation/management of the intervention). The pupils also explained how they had a difficult time expressing their emotions during the session. However, this could have been due to the external factors of the intervention as two pupils opened up about not getting along with other members of the group prior to the start of the intervention. Mistrust among the group members was a factor identified by another pupil, who indicated that she was not sure whether others in the group would keep the information to themselves irrespective of the intervention rules, wary that other may reveal the discussions of the group to others not involved in the group. The pupils further identified the lack of assistance from outside the group. According to the majority of the pupils *(n=6)*, they never received any assistance with implementing the skills they had acquired, outside of the group, which reveals an eagerness to utilise the skills in a wider context.

The data from this theme could be useful for future intervention planning and implementation and will be further discussed in the discussion. It must be reiterated that these issues were not identified during the delivery of the intervention, but if explicated, would not have significantly altered the delivery of the sessions. This is because some of the issues that the participants mentioned (e.g. disorderly behaviour and lack of trust between the members in the sessions) were attempted to be addressed prior to the start of the intervention (with the implementation of intervention rules) however, as the intervention was delivered in an educational setting in the 'real world' the researcher could not fully instil the rules into the participants. Similarly, the other issues mentioned by the pupils (problems in the organisation of the intervention within the school and failure to receive assistance from outside the programme) were outside the remit of the intervention.

Theme: Negative responses to the intervention	
Sub-theme: Factors which hindered the organisation/management of the intervention	
Organization of the sessions	"Sometimes we had school holidays and teacher training days so we could do the classes" (Participant G)
Bad behaviour in the sessions	"Some people were naughty and loud" (Participant E) " … and …. Were sometimes mean to me and …. Didn't talk to me in a couple of the classes" (Participant F)
Lack of trust of others in the group	"I sometimes didn't enjoy everybody telling things about their life because it was private and maybe other people would tell their friends, and other people would find out" (Participant D)
Failure to receive assistance from outside	"People outside the class didn't help me use the things I learnt" (Participant G)
Difficulty in expressing emotions	"If I was talking, I would get a little shy sometimes because I don't really talk about these things….feelings are hard to talk about" (Participant B)

Table 22: Examples of data for factors which hindered the organisation/management of the intervention sub-theme

The pupils identified four facets of the intervention they wished to change; none of which were identified to the researcher during the running of the intervention. This included increasing the duration of the intervention, changing the location in which the intervention was held, selecting other participants and getting one to one attention (table 23 illustrates some examples from the participants for recommendations for the intervention). Three participants felt that it was essential to reinforce the skills utilised both in the school environment and at home. Two pupils would have benefitted more from the intervention if the duration of intervention was longer (both the individual sessions and also the duration of the entire programme). According to three of the pupils, they would have preferred to hold the sessions in a different location as the current setting correlated "*like any other normal lesson"* (Participant A, C, and G), suggesting a more comfortable and 'external' setting. Half the pupils would have also preferred to change or replace the participants of the group. According to one participant, the intervention would have been more effective if

individual attention was provided. Nonetheless, four pupils felt that nothing needed to be changed within the group.

Theme: Negative responses to the intervention	
Theme: Recommendations for the sessions	
Time spent of the intervention	"Make it longer so we could learn more things…and play a bit more" (Participant A)
Changing the location of intervention	"Find a place we all like….in a better room….use more interesting things like balls and scissors" (Participant E)
Selecting other participants	"Get better children and others from different classes so we can all do it together" (Participant C)
Receive one to one attention	"Do it on our own so we could learn things that are important just for us and not worry that people would laugh at you" (Participant G)

Table 23: Examples of data for recommendations for the intervention sub-theme

6.2.7. Summary of Study 3a results

Following on from the intervention programme, Study 3a incorporated a second qualitative phase to explore the efficacy of the intervention programme from the perspective of the participants. The research aim was *"An exploration of pupils' views on their EI, post-intervention, and their perceptions of the programme role on it."*

The follow-up qualitative findings from the focus groups suggested that the intervention helped the participants develop strategies to better understand and cope with their emotions. Awareness of coping strategies developed from the intervention consisted of physical relaxation strategies, strategies of distraction, seeking social support and using self-talk. Previous research using interviews have found similar positive findings from children participants post-intervention, showing that children were better able to discuss emotions and feelings (Dwivedi & Gupta, 2000; Squires, 2001), were more equipped to manage emotions (Nickerson & Coleman, 2006), learnt to think before acting (Nickerson & Coleman, 2006), and were able to utilise techniques learnt from interventions (Dwivedi & Gupta, 2000). This suggests the potential impact of school-based EI programmes in effectively

developing and raising awareness of pupils' coping strategies. Schools and practitioners can possibly consider multi-component interventions combining educational, curricular and emotional elements rather than isolated support or curricular changes which could help deal with disruptive and off-task behaviour.

Development of empathy and mutual trust were also discussed by the participants, coinciding with the quantitative results of Study 2 (Study 2 findings suggested that the participants' empathetic skills developed from baseline to follow-up). The participants enhanced understanding of other people's feelings, and the ability to trust their peers and teachers could positively influence their participation in lessons by becoming more involved in classroom activities and discourses, in addition to possibly contributing positively to the classroom dynamics. Schools could incorporate additional team building days and compulsory extra-curricular activities throughout the academic year, particularly during transitions to help pupils develop their empathy and EI skills even beyond academia; however; due to the ever-present curricular focus, financial restraints and growing pupil safeguarding this may not be possible for many schools. Nonetheless, this coincides with the intervention participants mentioning the advantages of taking part in group intervention programmes which included developing a sense of belonging, understanding other people's feelings, being with friends, making new friends and talking with others.

The pupils mentioned that they seemed to establish a sense of belonging through participating in the intervention by supporting each other through group cohesion. Positive outcomes from interventions addressing behavioural conduct have been linked to the ability of the professionals delivering the intervention in building a cohesive group (Letendre & Davis, 2004). Rose (1998) highlighted that when group cohesion was high, participants in interventions were motivated to adapt their misbehaviours and respect the views of others. This once again highlights the significance of incorporating empathy, trust and group cohesion into educational instruction, with the potential to positively impact the immediate classroom environment but also the wider community. With the increasing diversity of pupils entering into school each year, paralleled by an increase in globalisation, it is incumbent for schools and teachers to actively develop pupils' empathy either through additional intervention programmes or embedded into the core curriculum.

Related to developing group cohesion and 'togetherness,' being with friends was repeatedly mentioned by the focus group participants. The participants alluded that they enjoyed being with friends during the intervention, which Nickerson and Coleman (2006) believe to impact on group interventions positively. The pupils highlighted that they would have felt isolated if they were participating in an intervention alone or in a group without peers that they know. This endorses group interventions with friends during the transition phase as pupils may be reluctant to fully engage in activities without being supported by their friendship networks. This highlights the need for careful strategic planning and context-specific preparation of transitional support, of which this research is advocating and highlighting. Even if it is not feasible to allocate friendship groups, it is imperative to offer the chance for pupils to get acquainted with each other before starting the academic content. This coincides with another sub-theme drawn from the focus groups whereby the participants highlighted that they made new friends from the intervention. Four participants explained how they became friends with pupils that they had previously disliked. Friendships have commonly been viewed as important factors for adolescents during the transition (Blatchford, 2006; Parker & Neuharth-Pritchett, 2009), with being liked operating as a protective factor and disliked as a risk factor at school (Rutter, 2013). The importance of friendships has been referred to in the literature review; in particular, during the transition phase when pupils usually are at risk of rejection from peers (see 2.3.5) and thus the opportunity for the participants to develop new friends in the intervention has particular significance.

Likewise, the participants believed that it was helpful to understand that others experienced similar emotions, which enabled the participants to feel better about themselves. This emphasises the significance of facilitating the pupils to understand their own emotions and other peoples' emotions to develop self-confidence which the intervention in this study attempted to address. The participants in the focus group highlighted that the opportunity to discuss their experiences and emotions with other children in a relaxed and secure environment, which they felt they previously did not have access to, helped them understand their emotions better. Previous research has indicated that adolescents valued the opportunity to talk to other people in a group setting (Humphrey & Brooks, 2006; Nickerson & Coleman, 2006), as well as to listen to what other pupils had to say (Dwivedi & Gupta, 2000).

Even though there were many positive aspects of the intervention, the participants also highlighted factors which hindered the effectiveness of the intervention, which are important to discuss in order to develop and improve any future intervention programmes. The elements which the made the running of the group difficult included the organisation of the intervention, participants difficulty in discussing emotions, mistrust amongst the group and not receiving support outside of the intervention.

There were external factors which created difficulties in the organisation of the group, including scheduling the intervention around classes, other special activities, trips and school holidays. Research of interventions run in schools have indicated similar difficulties, in addition to trying to free up staff time (Squires, 2001), and whilst not pertinent to this study, facing resistance of staff members in for the delivery of interventions in schools (Ginsburg et al., 2008). Ginsburg et al., (2008) highlighted that many teachers perceived school as a place for solely academic learning and worried about pupils missing curricular focus. The perception of teachers not valuing the importance of emotional intelligence in schools, which is not in the scope of the aims and objectives of the current thesis to discuss in detail, may highlight the need for staff members to receive additional training on the significance and importance of emotional training for adolescents. Ginsburg et al., (2008) highlighted the importance of flexibility in scheduling interventions around the school calendar, alluding to shortening the intervention to fit around lessons, exams, school trips and activities. This is in contrast to the views of the participants in this study who recommended increasing not only the duration of the individual sessions but also the duration of the intervention programme as a whole.

Moreover, the focus group participants mentioned that they found discussing their emotions difficult. Even though as previously mentioned pupils find talking about emotions beneficial, they found it difficult to be open, and transitional support programmes should give a bigger priority to enabling the opportunity for pupils to discuss feelings and emotions during the transition, rather than focusing on logistical and environmental processes of moving to a secondary school. Humphrey and Brooks (2006) suggested adolescents found it difficult to talk about feelings in large groups and highlighted that being open to others' could be linked to feelings of vulnerability. This suggests the necessity to ensure that participants feel safe and supported in an intervention and can express themselves without

criticism or being worried that personal experiences and opinions would not be revealed to others outside the group. This was imperative in this intervention and ensured through the use of intervention session rules which were highlighted before the start of each session. This further emphasises the need to create an environment during the transition and transitional support activities where pupils understand confidentiality and moreover, that it is meticulously maintained. Nevertheless, the participants explained that they still found it challenging to talk in front of their peers, as they were uncertain if the others would disclose the information they had said. As highlighted previously, trust was associated with the extent to which participants could share their experiences (Humphrey & Brooks, 2006).

A final difficulty the participants alluded to in the focus group related to the lack of support from outside the intervention, particularly in implementing the strategies developed from the sessions from either school staff or parents. There is a necessity to obtain staff and parent collaboration, which can develop the skills learnt and make the skills relevant to life outside of the intervention and even school (Letendre & Davis, 2004). Shucksmith et al., (2007) highlighted that working in partnership with parents was pivotal in developing an effective and successful intervention, as parents can help and fortify the ideas at home. As this was not possible in the current study, this will be further discussed in the future research section below, but this coincides with previous research which has found that positive parent-child relationships are predictive of greater development after an intervention for adolescents with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Hemphill & Littlefield, 2006). Similarly, numerous studies have found increases in the efficacy of interventions when the programmes involve teachers and parents (Reid et al., 2003; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2003; Webster-Stratton et al., 2001; 2004). Programmes which included parents and teachers reported an improvement in the relationship between parents and teachers but importantly reported changes in teacher attitudes and behaviour towards pupils. Again, this alludes to the importance of staff members to receive additional training on the value and importance of emotional training for adolescents. Letendre and Davis (2004) highlight the importance of extending support programmes to consist of playground and after-school sessions to enable the opportunity to utilise the emotional lessons to real life settings.

6.3. Study 3b

6.3.1. Introduction - Pupil's Insights of the Transfer and the School Context

Prior to the 1980s, research involving school transition was focused mainly on academic progress and issues with the administrative process linked with the transfer from primary to secondary schools. With a few exceptions (Blyth et al., 1978; Spelman, 1979; Youngman, 1978), there was minimal research investigating the perceptions of children transferring schools or focusing on alternative issues rather than academic aspects that might initially take place when joining a secondary school. However, certain studies in the 1980s, whilst focusing on academic progress, also began to investigate how variables other than previous academic performance may influence school achievement after enrolment in secondary schools (Dowling, 1980; Summerfield, 1986; Youngman, 1980). The studies offered limited detail of the measures utilised, however, they go further than academic testing including attitudes to school and school behaviour where the general agreement is '*It is not sufficient to neglect single determinants of failure or success during this period*' (Youngman, 1980, p. 11). Even though Youngman (1980) indicated the level of worries that some children had during the transfer, he failed to define the types of concerns the pupils had.

Since then, researchers recognized the ability of pupils to make substantial contributions to research and thus, researchers started to investigate the concerns and feelings experienced by children before and after school transfer in more depth (Akos, 2002; Brown & Armstrong, 1982; Cotterell, 1982; Jennings & Hargreaves, 1981; Mitman & Packer, 1982). Based on these studies, it was found that most pupils had some form of concern, even if it was temporary. Some of the common worries included: being bullied by an older pupil (Brown & Armstrong, 1986; Franklin, 2000; Sweetser, 2003), homework (Brown & Armstrong, 1982; 1986), school routine (Cotterell, 1982; Jennings & Hargreaves, 1981), losing friends (Brown & Armstrong, 1982; 1986), getting lost (Brown & Armstrong, 1986; Cotterell, 1982; Graham & Hill, 2003), getting on the correct bus to go home (Schumacher, 1998), the size of the school (Letrello & Miles; 2003; Lucey & Reay, 2000) and being the smallest in the school (Brown & Armstrong, 1982; 1986).

Nonetheless, researchers have also indicated that even though many pupils feel anxious, they also experience excitement (Galton & Morrison, 2000; Hawk & Hill, 2004). Most pupils look forward to secondary school (Zeedyk et al., 2003), are eager in making new friends (Smith, Feldwisch & Abell, 2006; Sweetser, 2003) and look forward to leaving behind the close attention of primary schools (Yates, 1999). Most pupils adapt well in spite of their concerns, and this is corroborated by a study conducted by Suffolk County Council (2002) which revealed that most anxieties vanished by the end of the first term. A longitudinal study that interviewed pupils a few months after the transition revealed that over 70% of pupils preferred secondary school to primary school, although they often objected to some lessons and homework (Franklin, 2000). Teachers and friends were the factors most missed from primary school, and when the pupils were asked what advice they would give to new pupils about to undertake the transition, the pupils mentioned the essence of organisational skills, keeping up with assignments and working hard (Akos, 2004). However, what is missing from the research is an understanding of the emotional impact transition may have on pupils and how this affects different aspects of their lives and performance at school. For that reason, the research question for Study 3b was "*What are the experiences of the pupils when transferring to secondary school?*"

6.3.2. Study 3b Method: Focus group and participants

Focus group methodology (for a critical analysis see 6.2.3) was adopted to gain a more holistic picture of the transition and investigated Year 7 pupils' views of EI. This focus group was conducted with a separate group of pupils to Study 3a (i.e. independent from the intervention cohort with no previous exposure to the overall research focus) but, who recently experienced the transition from primary to secondary school.

The focus group was conducted with eight pupils, selected by the Head of Year 7 from a New Year 7 group (males = 4; females = 4) with a mean age of 11 years and 4 months. The focus group explored the experiences of the pupils in their transition to secondary school and investigated how they perceived the differences between primary and secondary school, how supported they felt and any areas for future consideration (See Appendix 12 for Study 3b focus group schedule). The focus group with the Year 7's took place three months after their transition, and it was felt that this was a suitable time gap for their views and

experiences to be reliable and valid. The focus group adhered to the same procedures as Study 3a and was conducted in an unused classroom during a free period by the researcher and lasted approximately 30 minutes.

6.3.3. Study 3b Results

The themes from the focus group were arrived at using thematic analysis and are closely related to the focus group data. The themes were grouped together as their combination led to understanding different experiences of the pupils during the transition to secondary school. These themes arose from the talk of the pupils around experiences prior to and beginning of secondary school, the challenges of secondary school and support around transition.

Analysis of the focus group discussion revealed four major themes: the physical environment, school support against pre-transition support, ambiguous adult interactions and belonging (figure 15).

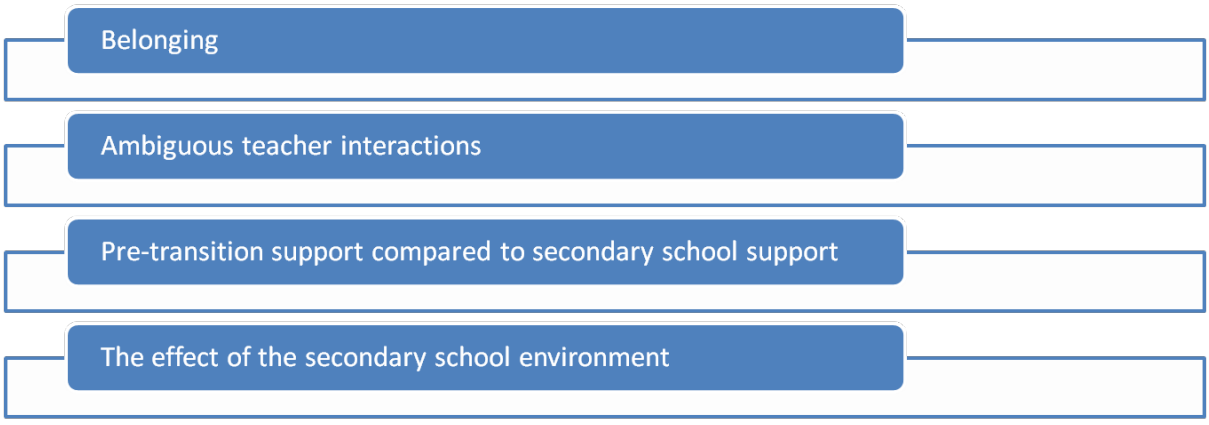

Figure 15: Four major themes from Year 7 pupils' focus groups

Belonging and not wanting to stand out

A common theme encompassed pupils talking about their sense of belonging and being part of the new secondary school; the desire to feel accepted and being identified with the new

school. Six of the participants perceived being accepted by their peers as a sense of attachment to the school, while others noted that they felt accepted by achieving academic success and completing their work:

"If I finish my work on time and get the answers right then I know that I should be in this class and not in a lower set" (participant F).

In addition, two pupils felt that both classmates and teachers provided the chance to generate a sense of acceptance; participant A mentioning:

"It's really important to get on the right side of your teachers....it works both ways...if they (the teachers) know you for being good in their class it feels nice to come to their class because you know they won't shout at you".

When asked about '*The most important thing in helping someone to settle in/enjoy secondary school?*' the notion of belonging was strongly alluded to (understood by the pupils as not being singled out by teachers and not standing out from other peers). Being identified as a secondary school pupil was seen to be positive as most of the pupils wanted to attain a sense of belonging while simultaneously fearing it could disappear by attracting negative attention:

"*I need to be careful, watch what I do, how I speak, learn to think before saying stuff. Otherwise they may not like me*" (participant D).

Participant D added that fitting into the class was essential, which held future implications. According to three of the pupils, additional support from the teachers in class was not perceived as favourable due to how the other pupils could react and thus, the feeling of standing out was again brought to the forefront. One participant feared being hurt since they had experienced bullying in primary school:

"P*eople say stuff. I can handle a joke but sometimes someone can misunderstand, and it goes past being a joke*" (participant B).

One of the pupils clearly described the wish of being perceived like 'everyone else':

"*I want to be seen as normal – like everyone else*" (participant E).

Concerning the fear of being the centre of attention in class when starting secondary school, there was a fear of attracting negative attention from the teachers due to off-task behaviour or academic challenges, as participant C mentioned:

"*If I make a mistake then that's it- the pupils will laugh at me, and the teacher could get angry or something*."

It is noteworthy that this was addressed in the current intervention in the sessions on self-awareness and self-confidence triangulating and supporting the findings from the teachers and observation in Study 1. This moreover, somewhat supports and justifies the focus of the intervention used in Study 2.

Strong academic performance was also related to standing out in class in addition to negative interactions with the teachers. Participant F mentioned "*Some people can be too smart*" which was elaborated on by the pupils believing 'intelligence' could be viewed by teachers as showing off in an attempt to get an advantage. Moreover, the fear of retribution from staff was also mentioned in the focus groups:

"*Yeah, that's why I do my homework all the time"* (participant D).

The fear of getting into trouble can be perceived as an attempt to belong to the school community in Year 7 as being told off or getting detention would be a means of standing out which enhances a psychological separation from the school community (Crosnoe, 2011). The role of the teacher in supporting the pupils inside and outside of the classroom during the transition was noted to influence the pupils belonging to a group:

"*Because I am not the only one that he helps, but the whole of us….that feels nice because all of us are getting help together*" (participant A).

This could imply that support from the teachers that was not clearly personal or directed at one particular pupil, but rather at the whole class could enhance the notion of belonging. According to participant D, support inside the classroom was necessary; however, it could separate the pupil from the rest of the class. This could support the notion of school-based/class-wide interventions such as the one in this research (Study 2) as the whole-class

applications allows individual pupils to remain anonymous in that no pupil in the classroom may ever know which pupils' behaviour prompted the use of the intervention. Moreover, schools and teachers could support pupils by enhancing their self-esteem as previous findings have shown that pupils' attitudes towards themselves are transferable to their attitude toward schools (Ma, 2003). Pupils who have a greater feeling of worthiness are believed to feel more comfortable in their schools than those pupils who feel less worth (Ma, 2003). Teachers and schools can also promote pupils to participate in school activities as this is also known to enhance pupils' sense of belonging. This should not be limited to activities during the transition, but extra-curricular activities could be incorporated into the school life whereby pupils feel like a continuous valuable member of the community.

Ambiguous teacher interactions

Teachers are influential and play a crucial role in the transition from primary to secondary school (Akos & Galassi, 2004) and the responses of the pupils in this study validate this belief. The pupils experienced both liking some teachers while being dismissive of others. According to three of the pupils, they believed that they experienced varying responses from the teachers; some acted like friends, some were smothering, and others were encouraging. Teachers have different interactions and expectations from the pupils in a secondary school setting compared to that of a primary school:

"*yeh*…(when asked if the teachers were different) *teachers are not the same- for example, one teacher is strict every time in the classroom"* (participant C).

Participant D had understood that the teachers had different expectations and demeanours and pupils needed to change their behaviours to suit the situation, with both negative and positive results:

"I'm completely different from Mr. Barnard's class to Miss Shaw's class. It just wouldn't work if I acted the same way all the time".

A significant part of the analysis focused on the support provided during the transition (which will be discussed in the following theme in further detail) however; it was important

to mention it in this theme as it related to the pupils' views of the teacher's role in the support. According to participant A, they recalled a time the teacher allowed a fellow pupil to leave the class in order for the pupil to calm down since the teacher was aware of the pupils' special needs, however, such teaching style was unique to that teacher only and *"other teachers wouldn't do that."* The participant elaborated that this teaching/disciplinary style made all the pupils feel at ease leading to a favourable opinion of that teacher: *"All the pupils like him (referring to the teacher)."*

The pupils' perceptions of the teachers in the new (secondary school) educational setting was seen to be a significant factor in the transition affecting levels of self-confidence, teacher interactions, and pupil participation. The pupils' awareness of different situations at the beginning of secondary school was also critical in determining the pupils' engagement in class:

"*I hate my class teacher, she is always shouting – she shouts at me all the time*" (participant A).

This suggests the importance of pupil-teacher relationships and its possible impact towards pupils' learning. According to participant E, he would only pay attention in class if he had a good relationship with his teacher:

"*There is no need for me to raise my hand up with everyone else because I never get picked (when talking about a teacher he was not fond of)*."

According to some of the pupils, the style of teaching at secondary school was important for them. Shouting from the teachers seemed to distance some of the pupils from learning which discouraged them from completing school work. This may have led them to believe that the teacher disliked them.

<u>Pre-transition support compared to secondary school support</u>

The responses from the sub-question *"Can you tell me about any help your primary school gave you to prepare for secondary school?"* produced a theme around 'pre-transition support compared to secondary school support.' Responses alluded to both effective but also comparatively inadequate pre- and post-transition support. The support received

before and after moving to secondary school consisted of issues such as preparing for future changes, finding one's bearing around the new secondary school and introduction to various subject materials. As mentioned earlier, the term transition, as used in this study, does not only relate to the immediate period after transferring to secondary school but the entire first year of the school.

All eight pupils involved in the focus group were able to recollect the pre-transition support their primary school provided, which consisted of prior visits to the secondary school in addition to presentations 'about you' so the teachers could learn something about the pupils before starting school. Nevertheless, the pupils were unable to recall the effectiveness of the support or determine whether the support was significant:

"*They took me around the school, but I had forgotten them by the next year"* (participant A).

One participant was completely indifferent to the pre-transition support suggesting that the duration of the support could have been longer:

"W*e did so many little things and activities. I couldn't enjoy any of them and would have liked some more time to do them"* (participant C).

A possible explanation of such views can be linked to the relevance of the support given and the personal characteristics of the one receiving the support. Pre-transition support appeared ineffective, with the pupils not considering the support as influential, while half of the pupils questioned whether anything had taken place at all. Contrary to the pre-transition support, all participants were able to recall what happened during the post-transition support and the activities that were provided to assist them through their first year in secondary school:

"We had lunchtime club, or older pupils who would help us in our class (pupil mentoring) like one did yesterday" (participant D).

The pupils' perception of post-transfer support is to be expected as the pupils were currently receiving the support during the time of the focus group, whilst the pre-transition was received six-eight months prior and hence possibly why it was forgotten and viewed as

irrelevant. As aforementioned, transition was viewed as an overarching approach for the entire first year instead of a limited period of time, as the first term. That being said, three participants, when probed about secondary school now and the future, displayed high degrees of concern and worry associated with moving to year eight:

"I felt like I want to drop out go back to my primary school" (participant E).

This degree of anxiety stemmed from difficult tests, the unfamiliarity of the future, strict teachers and higher demands on work as the pupils advance within the school:

"*You first start off with just a little homework or none, but as you go up and change classes, it gets to more and more*" (participant C).

Future fears were reinforced with stories of the '*enormous GCSE workload*' that begins when moving to Year 8. The deliberation of future stressors by nearly half of the participants highlights the importance of providing pupils with continued support to develop their emotional and social skills throughout not only the whole of Year 7 but possibly their entire secondary school education. The pupils will continue to face new and unexpected challenges throughout their educational lives, and thus, emotional and social learning should be continuously provided to equip pupils to be able to deal with them appropriately. For one participant, he suggested a solution to the anxiety of advancing to Year 8 which was either remaining in Year 7 or going back to primary school; his reasons being: "*because it feels safe*" (participant E).

<u>Physical environment</u>

The environment and setting of the secondary school was a recurring topic during the focus group. According to all of the pupils, the school environment was an influential factor in how the pupils' free time was spent and their movement around the school. Positive and negative factors relating to the school environment and such contrasting perceptions alluded to the significant influence the environment had on the pupils post-transition. Nevertheless, the school setting appeared to offer a sense of independence to the pupils while they moved around the school, possibly resulting in a feeling of accomplishment.

The playground was a common topic in relation to the large number of people that used it and general congestion. Three participants from the focus group highlighted that they felt uneasy in spending time in the playground at lunchtime as *"it is just too crowded*" (participant A, C, and D). It also appeared that the size of the school influenced the pupils' activities during their free time as the autonomy offered in secondary school allowed the pupils to spend their free time inside the building instead of having to go outside to deal with crowded situations. Two of the participants commented on how the large number of pupils in a certain space caused uneasiness particularly during moving from one part of the school to another:

"*I don't like going to B block because it feels like I have to go through so many people before getting to where I want since it is always crowded especially in the ground floor*" (participant E).

One of the pupils explained how he felt nervous in crowded situations around the school, however, as time passed by he became accustomed to the corridors being crowded at certain times (participant D).

Half of the pupils' comments indicated the secondary school environment can be overwhelming and confusing; however, contrasting perceptions of the secondary school setting were also ascertained. Although the size of the school was negatively viewed with regards to the congestion and number of pupils, it compelled the pupils to come up with strategies for coping with the situation such as following a timetable and asking other pupils for help, consequently developing their self-confidence:

"Y*eh, a timetable is a must have…older people help out when you're feeling lost*" (participant F).

The pupils found that using a timetable and navigating the way around the school improved their independence and decreased their reliance on teachers, contrary to primary school. Being able to move around the school setting dominated the positive perceptions in relation to the environment as three of the pupils mentioned that if they 'did not like' a certain space there were myriad areas in which they could move to:

*"I move away from the basketball courts because older pupils play there….and I don't like that area….I just go to the science building on the other side of the school" (*participant C).

The emotional and social skills that some of the pupils developed over time seemed to supersede the anxiety they faced during the beginning of the term, as the overcrowding of places were no longer a concern for some of the pupils. According to participant B, the spaces were not as crowded compared to the beginning of the term. This participant had created strategies that allowed him to cope with the situation:

"*I do walk on my own to prevent rush hour school."*

This seemed to support previous research that highlighted that the stressors of transition diminished over time (Blatchford, 2006; Sufford County Council, 2002) with some participant's speaking positively of being able to use the "…(once) huge" playground with the other pupils as it reinforced their feeling of maturity and 'development' from primary school:

"*Yeh you can buy your own baguette or sandwich, and you can go out and have it wherever you want without the teachers looking at you*" (participant A).

Whilst concluding the focus group, when asked *"If you could learn about something before you came to secondary school, what would you learn about?"* the majority of the pupils stated that they would have liked to become acquainted and more accustomed to the school environment. This is interesting as previous comments made by the participants in the focus group when asked about pre-transition support alluded to the pre-transition support consisting of finding one's bearing in the new secondary school setting. This possibly supports the researchers' prior claims that the pupils have forgotten or disregarded the pre-transition support in the six months period since the time of transition. Alternatively, it could also support the researchers' claims that non-cognitive support needs to be continuously presented and delivered to the pupils (not only prior to but also during the transition) to have a positive and long-lasting effect.

6.3.4. Summary of Study 3b results

The aim of Study 3b was "*What are the experiences of the pupils when transferring to secondary school?"* This part of the study was aimed at New Year 7 pupils who recently underwent the transition, to capture and represent their perceptions of the transfer, and moreover, if possible, to make links to the current intervention programme or possible ways in which the intervention could be adapted in the future for better efficacy. Eight Year 7 pupils participated in a focus group and a detailed presentation of the findings were presented. Four main themes were derived from the analysis of the data and three of the themes will be reviewed in light of the relevant literature. The themes of belonging; adult interaction and pre-transfer support compared to post-transfer support have been chosen to offer a personal account of the participants' experience of the transfer to secondary school. The impact of the environment theme and the environmental and organisational theme will not be deliberated in this discussion as vast literature already exists around these issues during the transition (Batten & Withers, 2006; Ennis & Manns, 2004; Thorpe, 2004 – see literature review section for a detailed account). Although applicable and valid, this theme from this study did not offer any new information for the emotional intelligence aspects of transition body of knowledge and thus, has not been selected for evaluation.

As found in Study 1 from the teachers' perceptions, the notion of belonging was also derived from the New Year 7 pupils' data. As mentioned before, the notion of belonging was in essence linked to being part of a group and/or school (Humphrey & Lewis, 2008). The participants inferred that they hoped to be accepted by the new children in their new school and if achieved, they would be happy. Belonging was perceived to be a positive characteristic, yet, they were nervous and apprehensive of attracting negative attention, which is supported by Stradling and MacNeil's (2000) findings that such worries continue through to the middle of Year 7. The pupils' expression of concerns is also in line with previous research that has highlighted that pupils during the transition express greater levels of anxiety for reasons such as being accepted, moving between classes in school, size of school, the impact of past friendships and academic performance (Bellini, 2004; MacNeil, Lopes & Minnes, 2009; Tantam, 2000). For such reasons, 'fitting in' seems critical and of fundamental importance in the lives of pupils during the transition period. Schools and practitioners may look to examine effective approaches in the context of wider inclusion

and participation which has mainly been a focus for pupils with mental and physical disabilities. Effective secondary school integration programmes could be put in to place to educate pupils to recognise differences as an invitation to create more inclusive communities which could divert the pressure away from practitioners to 'fix' pupils that do not 'fit in.'

Staff members were also discussed by the New Year 7 participants. Ozer et al., (2008) mentioned teacher relations as a protective factor in the transfer to secondary school and the data in this study support this claim. Previous research suggests that the more supportive school setting (in regards to institution, teachers and peers) the better the outcomes for the pupils (Anderman, 2002). Teachers are important and influential members of the school, and the participants mentioned both encouraging and dismissive comments with regard to their teachers. The pupils revealed that they received a wide range of different interactions from their teachers at their new secondary school combined with a large (mainly supportive) adult network. Parts of the Year 7 focus group discussion was associated with the (in)different help provided and the pupils' perceptions of the teachers involved during the transition, and this coincides with the observational data found in Study 1. The focus group data in this study also highlighted pupils' views of teacher-pupil discord during the transition which has been mentioned in previous literature (Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Entwisle, 1990; Feldlaufer, Midgley, & Eccles, 1988). Such perceptions of the teachers following the transition from primary have the potential to affect academic attainment, participation levels in addition to the sense of belonging. The comments made by the Year 7 participants about their teachers seem to correspond with the findings from Study 1. There seemed to be a common theme around the pupils wanting to be heard by the teachers but also a form of misunderstanding and miscommunication between the pupils and teachers. The importance and significance of pupil-teacher relationships to social and emotional learning and academic performance has been alluded to throughout the research, particularly with the intervention in Study 2 attempting to develop the pupils' empathetic and self-awareness skills. However, schools need to do more to enhance the social and emotional skills and abilities of the pupils, whilst also developing the emotional and social skills of the teachers in order to help build meaningful and effective pupil-teacher relationships.

Linked to teacher interactions, another element of the transition derived from the New Year 7 pupils was associated with incongruence and efficacy of the transfer support. Matters of transitional preparation, school support, and planning for future changes were established. Participants appeared detached from the process of transitioning to secondary school, identifying themselves as Year 7 pupils. Berndt and Mekos (1995) mentioned opinions of school are confirmed in the first few months of secondary school suggesting that a challenging start to the school will influence school opinions throughout the whole of the first year. The findings of the current study contest Berndt and Meko's finding as the majority of the pupils displayed positive perceptions of the school in spite of initially experiencing difficulties immediately after transitioning to secondary school in the form of congested corridors, strict teachers, and work difficulties. The initial difficulties did not impact on the participants' overall view towards the school, and this is supported by Blatchford (2006) and Sufford County Council (2002) who suggested that the initial effects of the transition disappear after the end of the first year at secondary school. Galton et al., (2000) further highlighted that the transition to Year 8 seemed inconsequential in regards to transitioning to a new school which resonated the pupils' views.

The efficacy of the support received pre-transition was inconclusive. The findings suggested that the transfer support was perceived in rigid terms that took the form of school visits (Lucey & Reay, 2000) in addition to information about the school provided to each child and parent. The effectiveness of the school visits were not conveyed by the pupils, yet old friendship groups in their new classes represented a positive support network (Gutman & Midgley, 2000). It is interesting to note that the pupils were dismissive of the support received pre-transfer but seemed positive about the support received at secondary school. The participants could describe in depth the help and support provided in Year 7. This may support the importance of EI interventions immediately after or during the transition year. However, it could be argued that the time gap between the pre-transitional support and the time the focus groups were conducted could have impacted on their perceptions, as the participants could have still been involved in the post-transition support. This implies that the most effective transitions/intervention support should run at significant time points (i.e. during transitions, exam times, etc) in order for the pupils to reach an extensive understanding of the support and possibly apply the skills learnt more effectively.

6.4. Overall discussion of Study 3

Qualitative methodology was used in this third and final study for the purpose of triangulation of the results of the two previous studies, thus, reinforcing the validity and credibility of this thesis (Patton, 1990). Using thematic analysis of two focus groups Study 3 investigated how the participants themselves experienced an EI intervention programme and pupils' perception of secondary school transition and support. There exists a scarcity of studies within the extant peer-reviewed research literature that directly relates to how pupils themselves report experiencing interventions and transition (Hennessy, 1999; Stallard, 1995). Nonetheless, it is of great importance that pupils are involved in the determining the relevance of emotional health and wellbeing initiatives that are designed to support them (Day et al., 2006). Therefore, the current study aimed to address this issue in addition to providing further support for the previous qualitative and quantitative studies described in this thesis.

First and foremost, the sense of belonging was mentioned in both pupil focus groups in Study 3 and also by the teachers in Study 1. This suggests that a sense of belonging is fundamental with respects to a transition to secondary school and must be addressed by any support programme during this critical time. Belonging was depicted in many forms throughout this thesis in that: the pupils feel accepted; acceptance was more influenced by the social context rather than academic performance; the pupils felt integrated and supported by the school context; pupils felt motivated to take part in the second school. The majority of research into belonging situates the psychological notion with regards to academic attainment. For instance, Goodenow (1993) and Beck and Malley (1998) suggest pupils who do not attain a sense of belonging at school, cannot perform well academically as a result of preoccupation with their emotions. Thus, interventions and transitional support should focus on developing a sense of belonging in order to enable pupils to focus on their academic attainment. With that being said, the follow-up focus groups with the intervention participants in this study mentioned that participating in the intervention made them feel part of a group and increased their group cohesion. This suggests that participating in interventions could enhance the sense of belonging and moreover the pupil's academic performance during the transition. This finding substantiates the rationale

of this study and has implications for interventions as "*important contexts for the development of inter-group attitudes*" (Brown & Bigler, 2002, p. 24).

Since the introduction of the National Curriculum pupils' academic development has frequently been reviewed through attainment tests leading to a climate of 'performance orientation' for both pupils and teachers (Robson et al., 1999). From the focus groups in Study 3 the researcher believed there seemed to be a short-term impact of support programmes without much long-term effect. Therefore, the introduction of universal assessment and monitoring of social and emotional development would go some way to redress the balance in recognising the importance of socio-emotional learning in enabling pupils to fulfil their potential in life: socially, emotionally and academically.

Both focus group discussions addressed ways in which interventions and support programmes (either specifically the intervention in this research (Study 3a) or support programmes used by schools in general (Study 3b) could be improved. The pupils were pragmatic and articulate in expressing their views. The participants of this research's intervention wanted more time with the programme, some suggesting an increase to the length of each session, others to extending the number of weeks (e.g. from the current six weeks to the possible length of a full term). Other pupils were more concerned with the practicalities such as the location and the peers that were in their group. This was somewhat corroborated from the New Year 7 pupils who suggested that they would have preferred the transition support to be sustained over a longer period of time, with positive peer support networks acting as a protective factor during the secondary transition. All these suggestions give a clear indication to ensure that 'service satisfaction evaluations' of school-based support programmes and interventions incorporate measures and methods that are salient to the pupils in their role as the 'service users' or participants (Day et al., 2006, Hennessy, 1999).

This final study had the objective of determining the views of the pupils who had participated in an EI intervention programme and a separate independent group of pupils who had recently experienced the transition to secondary school. Overall, the pupils who participated in the intervention evaluated their experiences positively and the reported benefits reflected closely to the intended aims and ethos of the programme. The New Year

7 pupils, independent of the intervention, expressed concerns of the transition to secondary school and highlighted the importance of effective support mechanisms for transitioning pupils.

In summary, the emergent themes from Study 3a and 3b together provide further evidence of the suitability and efficacy of EI intervention programmes for supporting post-primary pupils in their socio-emotional competencies. This serves to augment the validation of the inclusion of pupils in the evaluation process of school-based emotional health and wellbeing interventions such as the one used in this thesis. Additionally, the use of triangulating methods strengthens and validates the results of both the quantitative and qualitative components within this research programme.

6.5. Strengths, Limitations, and Implications for future research

There are certain limitations to this study that need to be taken into consideration. Firstly, even though a third of the participants involved in the intervention were interviewed, only a small percentage of overall Year 7 pupils were represented in the focus group sample. This undoubtedly affects the generalizability of the inferences made and may suggest a threat of selection bias on behalf of the Head of Year who selected the pupils for discussions (Stallard, 1996). However, capturing the pupils' perceptions and experiences of secondary school transition and support has provided and can provide for future research the potential to be part of a fundamental challenge to the construct of EI and how it is theorised (for example, internal and individualised as opposed to relational and general). Therefore, it can be argued that in offering this challenge, generalizability may have no bearing on this. Secondly, a structured approach was used within the focus groups for example not only in the focus group schedule but also the setting of the environment (in a formal classroom) which may have led to some loss in the richness of the data. However, this potential limitation was weighed against the need to have some sort of organisation and the participants to feel comfortable with a familiar scenario amongst their peers, in the belief that this would help them to be more relaxed about expressing their views (Sim, 1998). With regard to the focus group schedules used in Study 3a and Study 3b, a further limitation is the lack of focus on pupils' academic performance and achievement. Even though pupils' academic performance and achievement is a core focus of the thesis, it was deemed more

appropriate to understand the pupils' experiences from an emotional and social perspective; with the researcher questioning what extent the pupils of this age could be insightful and self-reflecting to discuss their academic needs. Finally, the focus group was facilitated by the researcher, who was also involved in the delivery of the intervention and once again this may have introduced an unintentional source of bias in Study 3a. The risk was once again weighed against the advantage that he was known to the participants which would have increased the pupil's ease when taking part. A similar source of unintentional bias did not impact Study 3b.

7. Chapter 7 - Discussion

This chapter discusses the role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the development of adolescents' social and emotional skills and academic performance. The discussion considers the implications of the findings derived from Studies One, Two and Three of the research. The methodology used throughout the research is critiqued, and consideration is given to the potential implications of the results. Finally, further research and the implications on practice are discussed, and conclusions presented.

This research utilised an embedded mixed methods design ensuring that the results of each study informed the characteristics of the next study. The first study explored teacher perceptions and the classroom context to determine a context-specific bespoke intervention. The Study 1 findings showed that Year 7 pupils in the secondary school showed a variety of positive emotional competencies during their transition from primary school. However, the data also highlighted that the pupils had difficulty in their ability to identify, process and interpret their own and others mental states. For that reason, the intervention focused on enhancing self-awareness along with empathy skills in relation to academic performance. The subsequent quantitative phase (Study 2) investigated the impact of an intervention to enhance EI and academic achievement of secondary school pupils; which was followed by a final qualitative phase (Study 3). The final qualitative phase was broken down into two parts with the former examining the efficacy of the intervention from the viewpoints of the intervention participants, whilst the latter part explored the understanding and perspectives of Year 7 pupils who had recently experienced the transition to secondary school.

7.1. General Discussion

There is a growing evidence base that is suggesting that Trait EI can positively impact educational outcomes, emotional well-being, and the ability to overcome adversity (Mavroveli & Ruiz, 2011; Petrides et al., 2004; 2006; Qualter et al., 2012). A critical analysis of the research implies that there could be a two-way relationship between educational achievement and EI which could result in the enhancement of social and emotional learning in the school setting (Fatum, 2008). EI has been argued to be complementary to IQ (Gardner, 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Wechsler, 1958) and studies have found that EI can facilitate the competencies of cognitive intelligence in leading to successful outcomes (Mount, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Nevertheless, this two-way affiliation is usually overlooked in the effort to achieve goals solely based on academic outcomes. Further research suggests that traits within EI (self-awareness, self-efficacy and self-confidence) are particularly beneficial in developing socio-emotional learning (SEL) necessary to achieving positive educational outcomes and strengthening interpersonal relationships (Humphrey et al., 2013; Wigelsworth et al., 2013; Weare, 2012). This provides a robust framework for implementing learning opportunities targeted at developing social and emotional learning. This notion was supported by the qualitative findings from Study 1 and Study 3 in the current research which highlighted the requisite of social and emotional learning opportunities from the most relevant participants in the educational setting: teachers and pupils. The pupils who participated in the intervention alluded to how they would recommend such SEL learning to their friends and how beneficial the sessions were: *"I'd recommend to my friends and others because it was educational you can teach them to understand and control your emotions" (Participant E), "The classes were fun, I really liked them" (Participant D).* The teachers also mentioned the importance of the social aspects of EI and the importance of developing relationships with others "*Being able to understand how other people are feeling and how well they (the pupils) are doing impacts on other people" (Teacher 4).*

This novel aspect of exploring the context before the delivery of the intervention and personalising the learning programme is the chief contribution of this thesis and to the field of EI intervention research. Regardless of the lack of extensive significant empirical findings in this research, it has potentially provided a new approach to educational interventions.

The primary qualitative aspect of this research provided an insight into the type of skills that may benefit pupils in this context which was managed by teachers, but also from the viewpoints of the pupils themselves. This is similar to the Ripple Effects intervention (Long-Cotty, 2008; Perry & Ball, 2008; Stern & Repa, 2000) which was the first personalised digital social-emotional learning programme that allowed pupils to self-identify their biggest barrier to learning and subsequently develop that skill via a digital suite. The Ripple intervention showed significant positive effects on improved grades, fewer suspensions, fewer anti-social behaviours and more respectful behaviour (Long-Cotty, 2008; Perry & Ball, 2008; Stern & Repa, 2000). Nevertheless, while the approach of the Ripple Effects programme was agreeable, limited empirical research has been gathered on the impact of the American based Ripple Effects intervention which lacked adequate theoretical grounding and suitable effect sizes.

Quantitative data collected in this research produced mixed results with numerous potential explanations. In general, the results suggested that the intervention did not have a statistically significant impact on participants' overall EI, self-perceptions or academic performance but did lead to a statistically significant increase in empathetic skills at the follow-up. Due to the inconsistent evidence-base on EI interventions, the present inferences both support and challenge existing research. Nevertheless, the findings from Study 2 should be interpreted cautiously taking into account the limitations of the intervention study, the potential Hawthorne Effect (Landsberger, 1958) and the potential impact of sampling error, as discussed previously in Study 2 and later in this chapter. Be that as it may, the theoretical underpinnings of this secondary school approach to EI development in this research were explored and the components of the educational innovation were rooted in empirical evidence. This provided a unified theory for the development of social and emotional learning through the delivery of mediated- learning activities designed to assist pupils in engaging in ethical and rational self-awareness and empathy skills. The qualitative findings from Study 3a tentatively suggest that the participants perceived the intervention to be a positive experience, identifying feelings of increased competence following the intervention. These findings from Study 3a appear to contradict the current quantitative findings, possibly supporting the idea that the quantitative findings may reflect Type II inference errors.

There continues to be limited evidence to support the positive gains in EI in secondary-age based SEL programmes within the UK. Subsequently, the impact of EI programmes has yielded neither a clear guidance regarding what EI education should or should not provide nor discussed how EI programmes could be effectively implemented school-wide to promote social and emotional development among school-aged children. Contrary to the findings of this research, some small and medium scale studies report significant increases in pupils' EI (Downey & Williams, 2010; Hallam, 2009; Holmes & Faupel, 2005; Humphrey et al., 2008; Kelly et al., 2004). However, as previously discussed, the inconsistent quality of previous studies means that reported results must be treated with caution as several studies suffer from small sample sizes and lack of adequate control groups (Downey & Williams, 2010; Hallam et al., 2006).

Despite that, the evidence presented in this thesis indicates that personalised context specific school-based interventions have the potential to impact on the emotional health and wellbeing of the pupils that take part. This is of particular importance during the transition in which the literature review has shown to be a markedly challenging time for adolescents. In supporting transfer, there is a need to connect curricular and social/pastoral opportunities between primary schools and the secondary schools to which pupils transfer. Nonetheless, while procedures and approaches are being developed to encourage links between primary and secondary schools and consequently supporting pupils during transfer, the efficacy of such strategies is less evident. Research (Ashton, 2008; Hodgkin et al., 2013; Measor & Fleetham, 2005) has suggested a more curriculum focus over social/pastoral care during the transfer. The potential of the support can only be realised with more personalised interventions on the socio-emotional development of pupils in school with a greater focus on the role of practitioners in developing this. It is the recommendation of this thesis that this should take the form of obtaining contextual information of the school and the needs of the target population before the delivery of any interventions/support as conducted by this research (Study 1 and Study 3b).

Additionally, research has indicated that social and emotional skills are located predominantly at the micro (classroom) level (Gormley et al., 2011). This indicates that

although schools are able to influence some aspects of social and emotional skills during the transition, the main source of variation is predominantly located within the classrooms. From the literature review we can see that for the most part, research on EI, SEL programmes and transitional support predominantly focus on pupils (Hallam et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008; Shucksmith et al., 2007; Weare & Gray, 2003; Wells et al., 2003). However, it has come to the attention of the researcher that the role of teachers is either overlooked, or teachers are only seen as facilitators to enhancing pupils' development. This may be to the detriment of intervention and support programmes. Evidently, a pupils' formal education is predominantly shaped by their teacher (Eccles & Roeser, 1998). Teachers that are socially and emotionally competent can create a supportive learning environment by developing and encouraging positive relationships with their pupils, encouraging collegiality amongst peers, planning classes that work on pupils' strengths and abilities, helping pupils through difficult situations and acting as a role model for pro-social behaviour around the school.

Teachers' behaviours are linked with "*optimal social and emotional classroom climates and desired pupil outcomes*" (Brown, 2017, p.18). Such climates are categorised by on-task behaviour, low levels of disruptive behaviour, suitable expressions of emotions and smooth transitions from one activity to another (La Paro & Pianta, 2003). Marzano et al., (2003) found that pupils showed high levels of off-task behaviour and low performance when teachers lacked the skills to successfully manage the social and emotional challenges in the school and classroom. Furthermore, as the climate of the classroom deteriorates the teachers become emotionally exhausted as they try and control the increased troublesome pupil behaviour. Due to such conditions, teachers could end up resorting to reactive and punitive responses which do not teach self-regulation and thus could lead to a continuous cycle of classroom disruption (Ozer et al., 2008).

Research indicates that teachers who enhance their own EI skill-set are able to better apply EI-based values to the classroom context (Elias, 2006; Weare & Gray, 2003; Cohen & Sandy, 2007; Brackett et al., 2010; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Moreover, research suggests that teachers are likely to use the knowledge and techniques they obtain as a foundation to teaching others (Carter et al., 2008; Timperley et al., 2008). The findings echo that teachers

use the EI skills that they have developed from their own training for work with their pupils (Fer, 2004; Brown, 2017) highlighting the importance of enhancing teachers' EI.

Even though teachers' professional development, particularly the development of their social and emotional skills, has been suggested by numerous researchers, many teacher training programmes continue to focus on pedagogy and knowledge (Guskey, 2003). EI interventions that do not incorporate teachers in the training have been greeted with scepticism, with claims that the lack of significant findings due to teachers not being given the opportunity to become engaged in their own EI development (Weare & Gray, 2003; Cohen & Smerdon, 2009).

Nevertheless, despite the acceptance and growth of EI practices, current academic and governmental evaluations have not kept pace. Consequently, except for the SEAL programme, there are no other large-scale UK studies using secondary aged pupils as evidenced by Blank et al. (2010) whose systematic review failed to identify any UK studies assessing EI or pro-social behaviours and skills for secondary age pupils. Therefore, it can be construed from the results of this research and the literature that there exists a need, certainly within the current target population of secondary school pupils, for the continued monitoring of pupils' emotional development. This may ensure timely and appropriate support is provided when required. Furthermore, early support and intervention may help prevent the development of future socio and emotional learning difficulties so that pupils can reach their full potential socially, emotionally, behaviourally and academically.

7.2. Contribution of the research

The limitations of the research have been considered throughout the respective studies; however, there are some distinct elements and strengths of the research. This research contributes to the existing body of literature around emotional intelligence interventions in educational settings by emphasising the need for context-specificity. It draws attention to the lack of research focusing on the conceptualisation, implementation and integration of context-specific personalized EI interventions in education. The present research has explored how EI interventions can be designed through engaging with the educational context and how, through this, these EI interventions can enhance learners' and teachers'

lived experiences in everyday school contexts. As part of this, the study has emphasised the potential contribution of combining qualitative research, in the form of naturalistic observations and semi-structured interviews, with the more traditionally found quantitative measurements relating to intervention studies carried out in the discipline of psychology. The thesis explored the importance of context specificity in intervention design but also explored how such context-specificity might practically work in schools. This provides insights regarding approaches to intervention design and is able to identify the process of EI intervention planning in education.

Insights from the present research show that contexts which shape and affect the implementation and integration of EI in each classroom are different, depending on how the classroom is structured and managed. Previous research, as indicated in the literature review (2.2 and 2.3), identified key factors that affect the secondary school transition. However, although similar factors emerged in the present research, what is significant is the fact that the new findings link the ineffective integration and transition to particular EI constructs situated within their larger context and support systems.

For example, the teacher interviews highlighted that the pupils faced particular challenges in maintaining and establishing social networks during and post-transition. The teachers mentioned that the pupils had difficulties in adapting to the new social environment (p.114) and so subsequently the intervention in this research focused on developing empathetic responding which is a significant determinant of successful social relationships (Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Petrides et al., 2006; Zins, 2004). After taking part in the intervention the participants explicitly mentioned that they felt that the intervention helped in enhancing their understanding of their peer's feelings, the ability to trust their peers and establishing a sense of belonging (p. 178). Similarly, the observations of lessons prior to the design of the intervention (Study 1) highlighted that the pupils had difficulty in understanding their experiences and seemed unaware of how particular emotions led to particular behaviour (p. 97). The intervention subsequently incorporated sessions to expose the pupils to recognising, labelling and regulating their feelings. Following such sessions, the pupils once again mentioned that the intervention helped in raising awareness of different trigger points of negative behaviour and helped develop various coping strategies (p. 177).

The present research alludes to the potential power and impact of context-specific EI interventions and builds an account of pupils and teachers perspectives of the secondary school transition and why and how pupils' EI could be supported through a personalised support system. The notion of personalization was supported by the pupils in this research who felt that the 'generic' pre-transition support they received was rigid, yet, were more positive when the post-transition support specifically catered to their needs (p. 195) – this could then be utilised in the design and delivery of future EI interventions. This is a key contribution by the present research because it provides an interpretation of the ecological events, activities, contexts, and emotional processes taking place during the transition and where and how EI interventions could be best used. Furthermore, the research provides explanations about factors that impact EI intervention implementation such as the location of the intervention delivery, the length and duration of sessions and the variety of tasks (p.172) that are richer than those found in the previous studies as observed during the review of existing literature. These contributions are timely, as the education system in the UK is embracing mental health awareness pedagogy in the delivery of educational outcomes in literacy and numeracy as discussed in the latest DfE mental health and behaviour in schools' report (2018). The thesis' recommendations can be incorporated in the formulating mental health and EI plans and implementation strategies that could help schools and teachers, and other stakeholders that are involved in EI interventions in the primary and secondary school education system.

Similarly, the quasi-experiment study used a control group design to investigate the study aims regarding the efficacy of the intervention. Researchers (for example, Weare, 2004) have highlighted the significant need for such comparative studies, due to the fact that existing literature has utilised pre-experimental quantitative design or qualitative methods, which threaten the internal and external validity of the research. Another contribution of the research is the use of various participants including pupils and teachers. In similar pieces of research, pupils (for example, Downey & Williams, 2010) or staff (for example, Hallam et al., 2009) perceptions have been under-represented. Therefore, triangulation of data has provided deeper richer insight which can now be used to enhance the field in the future. Even though there have been inclusion of practitioners' and pupils' viewpoints in previous EI

research, the researcher felt it should play a more influential role in order to be able to access and capture an insight into the two groups knowledge, abilities, viewpoints and practices with particular attention for the intervention programme. Prior qualitative contributions from the said two groups have also mainly focused on their personal evaluations of the interventions rather than their knowledge, abilities and perspectives to help in relation to shaping the intervention. There can often be a over-reliance on the assumption that researchers and psychologists can provide a true reflection and thorough account of a pupils' strengths and needs. However, in order to gain an integral holistic view, the people who live the educational life on a daily basis can often provide access to underlying reasons and a refreshing unique perspective.

The most significant strength of the research is the use of an embedded mixed methods design. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2004) believe that mixed method designs do not constrain research to one process of exploration and therefore, different approaches to actively investigate and consider answers to research questions can be sought. Qualitative interviews and observations before the intervention added to the intervention research and gathered rich information, exploring the school context, which to the researchers' knowledge has never been done before. This thesis also provided an exploration of participants' perceptions of their post-intervention EI abilities, and their views of classroom training's contribution to these. This research is exploratory and explanatory as opposed to solely evaluative and predictive as previous studies. Considerations have been given to the research methodology used, both for future research and for the practice of practitioners and researchers seeking to implement EI interventions within schools.

7.3. Recommendations for future research

Mixed-methods design should be considered to investigate the effectiveness of EI interventions in the UK. The present research's' exploration of programme specificity and qualitative approach to programme effectiveness was beneficial as was the investigation of ways to optimise the delivery of such programmes (Gulliford, 2015). Nevertheless, replication of the present research in a different context, with participants undertaking the transition to secondary school is necessary. This research denotes a single exploration of

this nature, with teachers and pupils from one secondary school in England. Replicating this research could provide a broader evidence-base of the effectiveness of EI based interventions with secondary school pupils in the UK. Moreover, researchers in this field (for example, Stallard, 2011) have highlighted that the EI evidence-base for adolescents stems primarily from American and Australian studies.

Secondly, the multi-informant strand of data collection in this research could be expanded to include parents' perceptions of EI in future research to enable a supplementary viewpoint of pupils' skills and abilities in the school context and furthermore, to triangulate the evidence relating to pupil progress. Careful consideration of the logistics will, of course, be required when implementing a parent measure. In addition, a further teacher-rating of pupils in the form of either qualitative or quantitative data could strengthen and triangulate the findings.

Thirdly, as mentioned previously, the lack of statistically significant outcomes in the present research provokes consideration of a 'dose-response' impact. This suggests a necessity to ascertain the required number and duration of sessions needed to generate positive findings for participants. Although pupils in the focus group in this research recommended longer sessions (which could be due to various reasons such as a preference of extracurricular activities over the core curriculum), previous EI based interventions produced positive findings with similar or shorter interventions than the intervention designed in this study (Brandon & Cunningham, 1999; Burton et al., 2010; Humphrey et al., 2010; Humphery et al., 2010b; Muris et al., 2002; Muris et al., 2009; O'Hara, 2011; Selligman, 2011; Ruttledge & Petrides, 2011).

Finally, as mentioned previously, utilisation of a larger sample size would be advantageous to increase the internal and external validity of the results. Possible inclusion of myriad schools could also be considered for future research. However, the limitations of the current research was due to the limited resources available to a single self-funded doctoral candidate; thus, other self-funded doctoral candidates may also experience similar difficulties with recruiting and supporting larger samples.

8. Conclusion

The current thesis is mixed-methods research investigating the role of emotional intelligence on adolescents' skills and abilities and academic achievement. The findings suggest that pupil rated behavioural conduct and affective disposition may significantly increase following their involvement in an EI intervention programme, but no significant impact on overall EI, other self-perception constructs or English and Maths scores. The lack of an impact in these constructs and tests may be due to the potential issues related to the validly and reliability of the research. In addition, fundamental to this piece of research was exploring the viewpoints of teachers and pupils who can influence the focus of EI intervention programmes. This research highlighted that not only is it possible to obtain subjective context specific viewpoints of potential interventions, but that qualitative perspectives offer invaluable insight into the elements that influence the intervention efficacy, with several of the themes from the teachers' interviews and classroom observations being supported by the pupils' focus groups. As the research was conducted in only one secondary school, additional research is necessary on a larger scale to confirm or reject the inferences made. Implications for practice and future recommendations for research consist of further developing interventions to be part of a whole school approach to support Year 7 pupils to transition to secondary school successfully. Teachers need to be more aware of the EI skills they can help foster and how they can organise their lessons to help new pupils build their peer-support groups. Furthermore, parental support needs to be

gained when delivering interventions like this, as research supports the impact this can have on pupil development and academic performance (Heyne et al., 2002).

The research draws attention to numerous factors that should be considered when implementing intervention programmes in schools consisting of myriad school, pupil and group factors. It has also provided further clarification of some of the factors that predict the efficacy of such programmes. The thesis has drawn attention to factors such as duration and location of the delivery of the intervention, embedding EI skills into the core curriculum and personalizing the focus of the intervention for its audience that necessitate further exploration in future research.

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Appendixes

Appendix 1: Semi-structured Interview Schedule

Introductions: Introduce researcher; anonymity and confidentiality; withdrawal procedures; purpose of the research

Participant Information Questions:

Before we begin with the interview properly, I'd like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

- What is your role within the school?
- How many years have you been at the school?
- In a few words, how would you describe the school; the setting, students etc?

Brief Background:

What do you know about EI of young children?

Introduce different constructs of EI using cue cards, for example:

Self- Awareness	**Self-Control**
Clear perception of your personality, strengths, weaknesses, thoughts, beliefs and emotion	Ability to control yourself especially emotions and desires, maybe in difficult situations
Empathy	**Motivation**
The ability to understand and share the feelings of others	The desire or willingness to do something

Questions:

1. Looking at these constructs, which do you think is most valuable for a Year 7 student to have to succeed in school (academically and socially) and why?
    a. Are there any other constructs not listed that you feel maybe are important for a successful transition?

2. What are the main challenges for Year 7 pupils when adjusting to Secondary School in terms of Social and Emotional Developments?
    a. What do you think are the main social challenges pupils face in year 7 in adjusting to secondary schooling?
    b. In terms of emotional development – what do you think are the challenges for these pupils?
    c. With regard to these social and emotional challenges, how does it affect the students academically?
3. Describe an 'ideal' student in terms of behaviour, demeanour etc? In the classroom and also during free time?
    a. Describe the abilities of a well-adjusted student?
    b. What aspects of personality do you think are important for positive adjustment to Secondary School?
    c. What abilities do you think are an advantage when making the adjustment?
4. From your description in Question 2, how would this student do academically?
    a. Thinking about the abilities mentioned in Question 2a, and the constructs mentioned at the beginning, how do you think these abilities relate to academic achievement?
5. Describe a "disruptive" student in terms of demeanour, behaviour etc?
    a. Describe a "difficult" EI child?
    b. Why do you think they behave as they do?
    c. How do you deal with such students? Academically how do you help them?
6. What would an EI intervention programme for Year 7 students be recommended to focus on?
    a. What aspects of emotional intelligence do you think students would most benefit from? (Refer back to constructs)
    b. In terms of an intervention to help students adjust, what do you think the focus should be?
    c. What kind of activities could they benefit from to improve EI?
    d. What kind of benefits do you think they are likely to gain by participating in such a program?
7. Thinking about specific difficult students under your care/in your class, what could they do to become better students socially and academically?

Is there any further comments you would like to add about the EI of young children and/or how they may benefit from an intervention programme?

Ask for any further comments regarding transition phase and emotional literacy of students.

Debrief.

Thank you for participating in my study.

Appendix 2: Participant Information Sheet and consent form

The role of EI in the development of adolescents' social and emotional abilities and skills

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the following information carefully. Talk to others about the study if you wish.

Part 1 tells you the purpose of this study and what will happen if you take part.

Part 2 gives you more detailed information about the research.

Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

The research is being conducted by Arif Mahmud, PhD student at Middlesex University, as part of a Doctorate in Educational Psychology.

Part 1.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study aims to find out if there is a relationship between Emotional Intelligence (particularly emotional management) and academic performance and achievement. This study will investigate whether end of year academic results improve after participation in an emotional learning intervention programme, that which will be constructed by the researcher, based on previous programmes and observation of the students and staff interviews.

Do I have to take part?

No. It's up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do, you will be given this information sheet to keep and you will be asked to sign a consent form. You are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. Please note anonymised data already collected may however still continue to be used as part of this study.

What will happen if I take part?

If you decide you would like to take part in the study, you can contact the researcher using the details given below. The researcher will then contact to arrange a convenient meeting for you at the school. During the meeting, the researcher will explain to you what the research will involve and you will then need to sign a consent form, which means you agree to take part in the study. The researcher will then ask some questions about the Year 7 students and their general transition from Primary to Secondary School. The interview is expected to last approximately half an hour and it may also

involve suggesting some students whom you believe will benefit from facilitating and developing their emotional and social skills.

Will my taking part be anonymous?

Yes. All information about you and the students in the study will be anonymised. Any information about you which is used will have your name and address removed so that you cannot be recognised from it. Further details are included in Part 2 of the information sheet.

Contact details

If you have any further questions at this time, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher (Mr Arif Mahmud) on 07825299409 or email am2712@live.mdx.ac.uk.
If the information in Part 1 has interested you and you are considering taking part, please continue to read the additional information in Part 2 before making any decision.

Part 2.

What will happen to the results of the study?

The data will be written up as part of research degree at Middlesex University and will be submitted for publication in an appropriate journal. It is hoped that the information will be used to help find ways of improving social and emotional learning of children and direct the focus of the emotional intelligence intervention programme. If you are interested in finding out about the results of the study, the researcher will arrange a way to feed this back to you.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the research?

If you withdraw from the study, all identifiable materials will be destroyed, but we will need to use the data collected up to your withdrawal.

What if there is a problem?

If you have a concern about any aspect of the study, you should ask to speak with the researcher (07825299409) who will do his best to answer your questions.

Will information about us be kept safely?

All information that is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept safely. Information will be stored in a locked filing cabinet at Middlesex University and will have your name and address removed so you cannot be recognised from it.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study has been reviewed by the Middlesex University ethics committee.

Thank you for your time

Consent Form

The role of EI in the development of adolescents' social and emotional abilities and skills

Mr. Arif Mahmud (BA, MA), PhD Student

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study of emotional intelligence and student's academic performance and achievement. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason, without any repercussions.

I agree that my non-identifiable research data may be stored in National Archives and be used anonymously by others for future research. I am assured that the confidentiality of my personal data will be upheld through the removal of any identifiers.

I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of staff: .....

Date: .....

Signature of staff:
.....

Name of researcher: Arif Mahmud

Date: .....

Signature of researcher:

.....

Appendix 3: Example of semi-structure interview transcription

What are the main challenges, I know you touched on it a little bit, but what are the main challenges a year seven pupil has from the transition stage coming from year six to year seven what's the main in terms of social and emotional?

I think the biggest thing is they are no longer top of the school. The fact that they've gone back to the bottom in the pecking order and it makes them change completely; so those ones who maybe didn't respond a certain way before start to come out a different personality. I've had a couple in my tutoring **[0.05.00]** where parents have been really concerned because their whole personality has shifted since starting secondary school but I think that's more about the fact that they now want to look more impressive than they did before. Whereas before everybody knew them and now they've come almost individually to a different situation and now they're trying to look like the big one.

Okay

I think their ego's maybe, so I think that's probably one of the biggest things

So what are they doing?

Hmmm they try the really silly things. If they were sitting here now they'd just be like scrunching up paper and throwing bits of paper attention seeking, minor attention seeking nothing serious. Maybe a little bit of bragging 'oh I've got a detention' that sort of thing that actually they would never had done in the past, never would have done in the past. That sort of silly acting up

How does this affect them academically?

Well one of the one's in particular he started off, they set them when they first came in, and he's now gone down from a top set to a second set so he's actually not achieved in his lessons because other things have got in the way.

Right okay

His parents are very concerned because he came in as a gifted and talented but he's now slipped to a second set because of his achievement and what's happened this year

So what do you think that's linked to?

I think it's linked to him trying to look the coolest out of everybody

Oh right

I think it's him trying to be cool

Social development

I think it is. Academically he's very bright. When you speak to him he knows what he's doing

So hypothetically what is an ideal student like for you in terms of behaviour and demeanour and things like that?

I don't like silent pupils so much. I like pupils who are open to talk who will actually say something, even if it's something that might hurt somebody or something else, if they actually learn to deal with that and how to communicate properly. So I like the children who can actually communicate well more so academically or personality or anything like that. You can have a child who really struggles to learn whether it's a new tutor group or in a class but actually they try really hard because they want to try as well. So I like the triers and the ones that talk. I don't like the silence around me

So what do you reckon this comes under a child that speaks?

A bit of a link to all of them; because they've got to be confident and aware of themselves, maybe not the most empathy maybe so a little bit of empathy they've got to have in there

Appendix 4: Classroom Observation Schedule

Skill Domain	EI Domain	Interaction (i.e. S-T/S-S)	Comments
Intrapersonal	Self - awareness		
	Self- confidence		
	Self - control		
	Motivation		
Interpersonal	Conflict Management/Teamwork		
	Empathy		
	Influence/Communication		

Class:

Time:

Subject: **Number of Pupils:**

Observer effects:

Teacher's expressed views:

Additional thoughts:

Construct	Main Effect	Significance value post-test (p>.05)	Significance value follow-up (p>.05)
Adaptability	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.08, p=.303	*F*(1, 56)=35.46, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.44, p=.124	*F*(1, 56)=2.27, p=.138
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.44, p=.508	*F*(1, 56)=1.09, p=.302
Emotional expression	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.18, p=.672	*F*(1, 56)=.13, p=.721
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.66, p=.420	*F*(1, 56)=1.93, p=.170
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.93, p=.339	*F*(1, 56)=.65, p=.422
Emotional perception	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.61, p=.439	*F*(1, 56)=3.66, p=.061
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.17, p=.679	*F*(1, 56)=.18, p=.676
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.09, p=.762	*F*(1, 56)=.24, p=.625
Self-motivation	Time	*F*(1, 58)=3.36, p=.072	*F*(1, 56)=7.34, p=.009
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=3.54, p=.065	*F*(1, 56)=1.19, p=.280
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.81, p=.184	*F*(1, 56)=7.37, p=.009
Self-esteem	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.13, p=.723	*F*(1, 56)=.13, p=.717
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.55, p=.218	*F*(1, 56)=.13, p=.717
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.87, p=.354	*F*(1, 56)=.26, p=.611
Low impulsivity	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.35, p=.250	*F*(1, 56)=25.07, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.46, p=.231	*F*(1, 56)=1.02, p=.317
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.00, p=.322	*F*(1, 56)=.88, p=.353
Peer relations	Time	*F*(1, 58)=3.46, p=.068	*F*(1, 56)=4.48, p=.039
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.08, p=.778	*F*(1, 56)=3.74, p=.058
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.61, p=.210	*F*(1, 56)=.97, p=.328
Emotional regulation	Time	*F*(1, 58)=2.27, p=.137	*F*(1, 56)=20.88, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.15, p=.700	*F*(1, 56)=.46, p=.499
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.42, p=.520	*F*(1, 56)=2.68, p=.107
Affective disposition	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.66, p=.203	*F*(1, 56)=47.72, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.04, p=.312	*F*(1, 56)=1.64, p=.206
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=6.70, p=.012	*F*(1, 56)=1.56, p=.217
Overall EI	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.11, p=.746	*F*(1, 56)=34.13, p>001

	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.23, p=.867	*F*(1, 56)=2.44, p=.124
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.44, p=.124	*F*(1, 56)=1.44, p=.235

Appendix 5: TEIQue-CF two way ANOVA scores

Construct	Main Effect	Significance value post-test (p>.05)	Significance value follow-up (p>.05)
Scholastic competence	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.65, p=.422	*F*(1, 56)=.26, p=.615
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.19, p=.280	*F*(1, 56)=.02, p=.893
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.08, p=.303	*F*(1, 56)=.34, p=.564
Social competence	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.05, p=.310	*F*(1, 56)=.83, p=.366
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.01, p=.930	*F*(1, 56)=.07, p=.771
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.91, p=.172	*F*(1, 56)=1.51, p=.225
Athletic competence	Time	*F*(1, 58)=3.45, p=.072	*F*(1, 56)=1.44, p=.235
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.23, p=.637	*F*(1, 56)=.34, p=.564
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.01, p=.919	*F*(1, 56)=.09, p=.762
Physical appearance	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.14, p=.712	*F*(1, 56)=.01, p=.930
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.25, p=.623	*F*(1, 56)=.16, p=.688
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.22, p=.274	*F*(1, 56)=.41, p=.524
Behavioural conduct	Time	*F*(1, 58)=5.48, p=.023	*F*(1, 56)=1.77, p=.189
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.00, p=.756	*F*(1, 56)=.21, p=.645
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.47, p=.507	*F*(1, 56)=2.39, p=.128
Global self-worth	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.52, p=.472	*F*(1, 56)=1.62, p=.209
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.76, p=.389	*F*(1, 56)=1.38, p=.245
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.64, p=.109	*F*(1, 56)=3.18, p=.080

Appendix 6: SPPC two way ANOVA scores

Construct	Main effect	Significance value post-test (p>.05)	Significance value follow-up (p>.05)
Perspective taking	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.28, p=.262	*F*(1, 56)=51.87, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.88, p=.095	*F*(1, 56)=1.96, p=.167
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.11, p=.744	*F*(1, 56)=.03, p=.868
Fantasy scale	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.02, p=.878	*F*(1, 56)=31.05, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.45, p=.506	*F*(1, 56)=.81, p=.372
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.03, p=.160	*F*(1, 56)=.11, p=.747
Empathic concern	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.75, p=.390	*F*(1, 56)=40.36, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=13.74, p>000	*F*(1, 56)=.46, p=.499
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=3.65, p=.061	*F*(1, 56)=.07, p=.797
Personal distress	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.39, p=.535	*F*(1, 56)=60.15, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.12, p=.151	*F*(1, 56)=.29, p=.595
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.38, p=.541	*F*(1, 56)=.54, p=.467

Appendix 7: IRI two way ANOVA scores

Construct	Main Effect	Significance value male (p>.05)	Significance value female (p>.05)
Adaptability	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.08, p=.303	*F*(1, 56)=35.46, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.44, p=.124	*F*(1, 56)=2.27, p=.138
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.44, p=.508	*F*(1, 56)=1.09, p=.302
Emotional expression	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.18, p=.672	*F*(1, 56)=.13, p=.721
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.66, p=.420	*F*(1, 56)=1.93, p=.170
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Self-motivation	Time	*F*(1, 58)=3.36, p=.072	*F*(1, 56)=7.34, p=.009
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=3.54, p=.065	*F*(1, 56)=1.19, p=.280
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.81, p=.184	*F*(1, 56)=7.37, p=.009
Self-esteem	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.13, p=.723	*F*(1, 56)=.13, p=.717
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	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.87, p=.354	*F*(1, 56)=.26, p=.611
Low impulsivity	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.35, p=.250	*F*(1, 56)=25.07, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.46, p=.231	*F*(1, 56)=1.02, p=.317
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Affective disposition	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.66, p=.203	*F*(1, 56)=47.72, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.04, p=.312	*F*(1, 56)=1.64, p=.206
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=6.70, p=.012	*F*(1, 56)=1.56, p=.217
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	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.23, p=.867	*F*(1, 56)=2.44, p=.124

	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.44, p=.124	*F*(1, 56)=1.44, p=.235

Appendix 8: TEIQue-CF two way ANOVA gender scores post-test

Construct	Main Effect	Significance value male (p>.05)	Significance value female (p>.05)
Scholastic competence	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.65, p=.422	*F*(1, 56)=.26, p=.615
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.19, p=.280	*F*(1, 56)=.02, p=.893
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.08, p=.303	*F*(1, 56)=.34, p=.564
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	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.23, p=.637	*F*(1, 56)=.34, p=.564
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.01, p=.919	*F*(1, 56)=.09, p=.762
Physical appearance	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.14, p=.712	*F*(1, 56)=.01, p=.930
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.25, p=.623	*F*(1, 56)=.16, p=.688
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=1.22, p=.274	*F*(1, 56)=.41, p=.524
Behavioural conduct	Time	*F*(1, 58)=5.48, p=.023	*F*(1, 56)=1.77, p=.189
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=1.00, p=.756	*F*(1, 56)=.21, p=.645
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Global self worth	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.52, p=.472	*F*(1, 56)=1.62, p=.209
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.76, p=.389	*F*(1, 56)=1.38, p=.245
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.64, p=.109	*F*(1, 56)=3.18, p=.080

Appendix 9: SPPC two way ANOVA gender scores post-test

Construct	Main effect	Significance value male (p>.05)	Significance value female (p>.05)
Perspective taking	Time	*F*(1, 58)=1.28, p=.262	*F*(1, 56)=51.87, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.88, p=.095	*F*(1, 56)=1.96, p=.167
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Fantasy scale	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.02, p=.878	*F*(1, 56)=31.05, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=.45, p=.506	*F*(1, 56)=.81, p=.372
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=2.03, p=.160	*F*(1, 56)=.11, p=.747
Empathic concern	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.75, p=.390	*F*(1, 56)=40.36, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=13.74, p>000	*F*(1, 56)=.46, p=.499
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=3.65, p=.061	*F*(1, 56)=.07, p=.797
Personal distress	Time	*F*(1, 58)=.39, p=.535	*F*(1, 56)=60.15, p>001
	Interaction	*F*(1, 58)=2.12, p=.151	*F*(1, 56)=.29, p=.595
	Group	*F*(1, 58)=.38, p=.541	*F*(1, 56)=.54, p=.467

Appendix 10: IRI two way ANOVA gender scores post-test

Appendix 11: Focus Group Year 8 (Study 3a)

Introduction to the participants

Hello everyone! Thank you for meeting with me today. You may remember; my name is Arif. As you know, we are going to ask you all some questions about the intervention programme that you attended a few months ago. I'm here to collect some information from you that will form a written report. We are not here to find anything personal about you, just about your experiences. Please feel free to say what you think. We will be recording this conversation with this recorder so that we can remember what you said. We will not reveal your name of personal details, just what you said. The session will last for about half an hour. Do you have any questions?

Ground rules:

Before we begin, we need to set some rules so that everyone gets to join in. As we are using a recorder, we need to be able to hear everyone properly. Therefore, when one person is talking, everyone else will listen. If you want to say something, hold it until the other person has finished speaking, then speak.

As everyone will be giving their own views, we might not all agree. However, we will respect each other's comments by listening to one another.

I will try and give everyone in the group an opportunity to join in the discussions. What is said within the group remains in the group. Any questions?

Interview schedule for intervention students:

Children introduce themselves by their number:

Q1: Tell me a bit about what you did in the lessons you did with me last year.

Q2: What was the best thing about it? Which activities do you most/least enjoy and why?

Q3: Why is this important to/for you?

Q4: Were the lessons helpful? Why/why not?

Q5: Has taking part changed how you feel or behave?

Q6: Are there any different strategies you have used to manage your emotions since attending the program?

Q6: Have your family/friends/school noticed any change in you? Have you noticed any change in yourself?

Q7: What would you change about the lessons we did together?

Q8: Would you recommend such intervention programmes to your friends? Why/why not?

Appendix 12: Focus group schedule for New Year 7's (Study 3b):

Welcome

- Introduce myself
- Explain purpose of the focus group – quick reminder of research project
- Assure confidentiality
- Ask permission to tape the interview
- Tell them they can leave at any time
- Any questions?

Overview of focus group process

- I am interested in your experiences of moving to secondary school and any support you were given
- There are no right or wrong answers
- Ground rules of focus group (as with focus group of Year 8's)

Discussion

(Experiences prior to beginning secondary school)

Priority Q: How did you feel about leaving primary school to start secondary school? (Possible prompts: What were your thoughts about going to secondary school? What did you think secondary school would be like?)

Sub Q: Can you tell me a little about your time at primary school? (Possible prompts: what did you like/dislike?)

Sub Q: Can you tell me about any help your primary school gave you to prepare for secondary school? (Possible prompts: What did they do? Did you talk about it with your teacher/anyone from your new school?)

(Experiences of beginning secondary school)

Priority Q: What do you think are the most important things in helping someone to settle in/enjoy secondary school?

Sub Q: Can you tell me about your first day at secondary school? (Possible prompts: What did you do? How did you feel? What was the best/trickiest part of the day?)

Sub Q: How was it different from primary school? How did you find those changes?

Sub Q: How was your first term at secondary school?

(Experiences of school now)

Priority Q: Can you tell me what is school like for you now? (Possible prompts: What is going well? What do you enjoy? Is there anything that is tricky?

Sub Q: What is a good/bad at secondary school like? (Possible prompts: What happens on a good/bad day? What are your lessons/play times like?)

Priority Q: If you could talk to children who are about to move to secondary school, what advice would you give them?

Priority Q: If you could learn about something before you came to secondary school, what would you learn about?

Sub Q: Can you tell me what it's like to be a secondary school student?

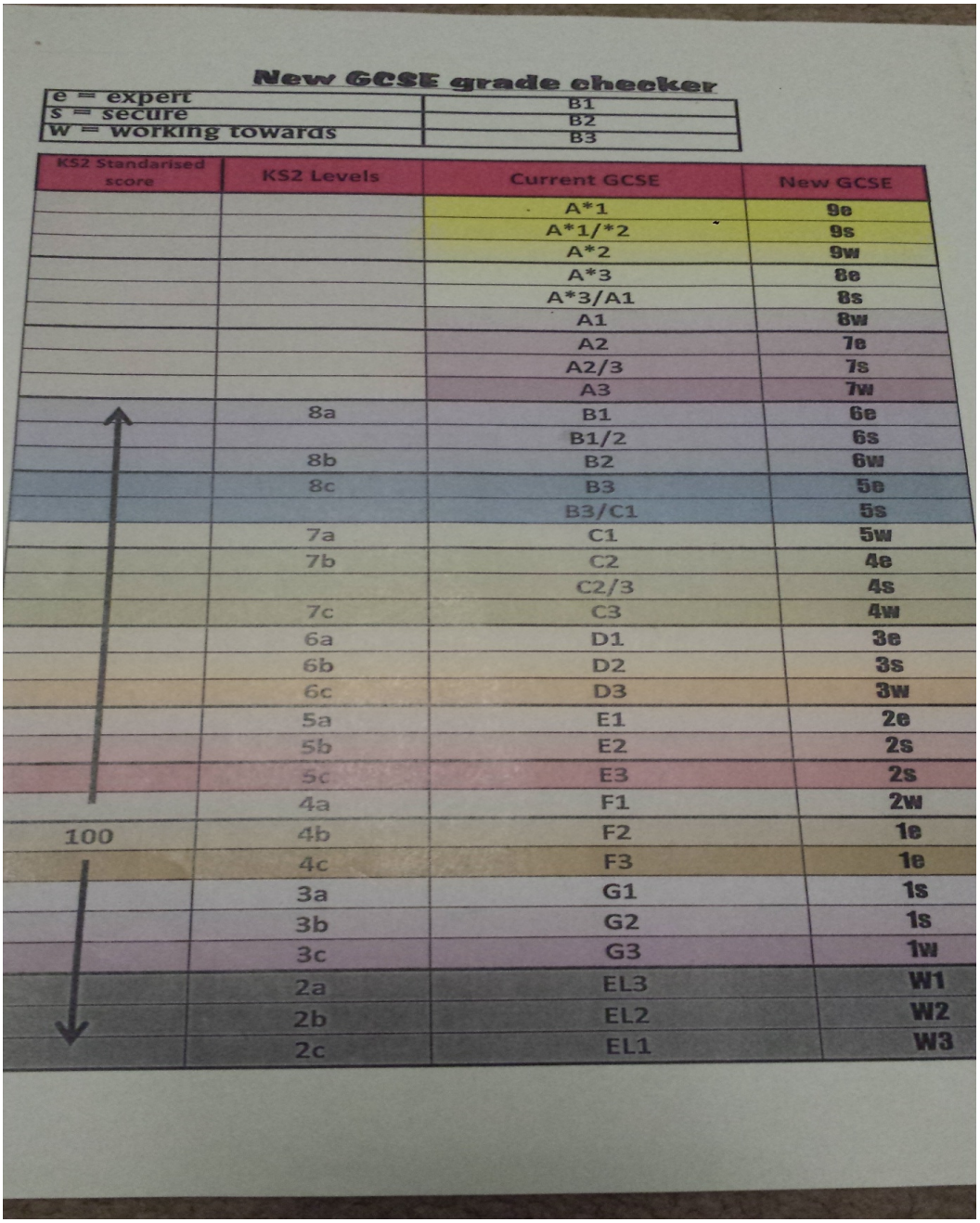
Sub Q: How can you tell if someone has settled into secondary school?

Sub Q: What would it be like if a student hadn't settled into their secondary school?

Closure

- Explain what will happen next
- Thank them
- Remind them of their right to withdraw and issues relating to confidentiality
- Take them back to their classrooms

Appendix 13: Classification of 2017 Key Stage 3 grades



New GCSE grade checker

e = expert	B1
s = secure	B2
w = working towards	B3

KS2 Standarised score	KS2 Levels	Current GCSE	New GCSE
		A*1	9e
		A*1/*2	9s
		A*2	9w
		A*3	8e
		A*3/A1	8s
		A1	8w
		A2	7e
		A2/3	7s
		A3	7w
	8a	B1	6e
		B1/2	6s
	8b	B2	6w
	8c	B3	5e
		B3/C1	5s
	7a	C1	5w
	7b	C2	4e
		C2/3	4s
	7c	C3	4w
	6a	D1	3e
	6b	D2	3s
	6c	D3	3w
	5a	E1	2e
	5b	E2	2s
	5c	E3	2s
	4a	F1	2w
100	4b	F2	1e
	4c	F3	1e
	3a	G1	1s
	3b	G2	1s
	3c	G3	1w
	2a	EL3	W1
	2b	EL2	W2
	2c	EL1	W3

Appendix 14: Summary of all statistically significant pre-, post and follow up findings

Affective disposition (main effect of group)	*F*(1, 58)=6.70, p<.05
Behavioural conduct (main effect of time)	F(1, 58) = 5.48, p<.05
Empathic scale (interaction)	F(1, 58) = 13.74, p<.001

Summary of all statistically significant findings from pre-post test

Adaptability (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=35.46, p<.001
Self-motivation (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=7.34, p<.01
Self-motivation (main effect of group)	F(1,56)=7.37, p<.01
Low impulsivity (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=25.07, p<.001
Peer relations (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=4.476, p<.05
Emotional regulation (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=20.88, p<.001
Overall EI (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=34.134, p<.001
Behavioural conduct (main effect of time)	F(1, 56) = 5.48, p<.05
Empathic concern (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=40.36, p<.001
Perspective taking (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=51.87, p<.001
Fantasy scale (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=56.00, p<.001
Personal distress (main effect of time)	F(1,56)=60.15, p<.001

Summary of all statistically significant findings from post-follow up test